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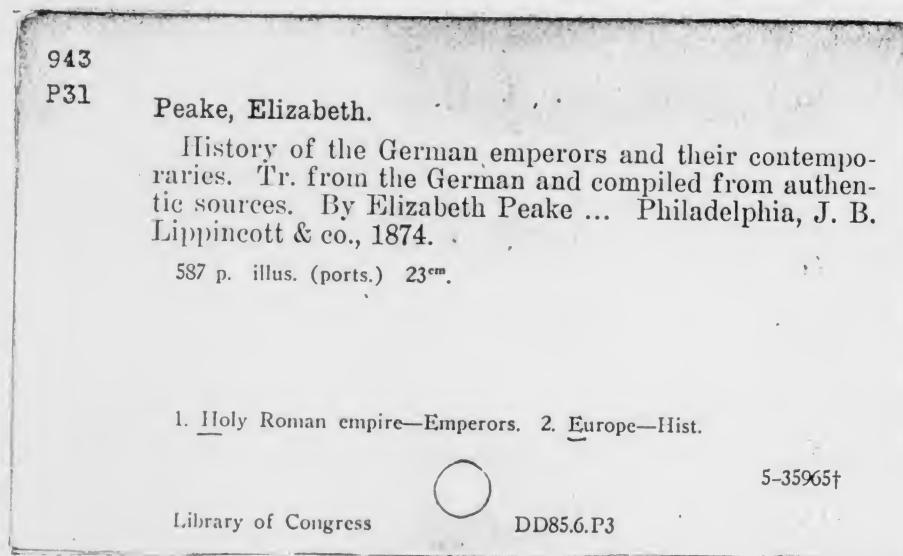
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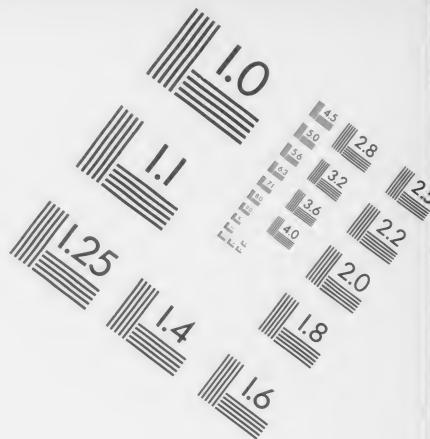
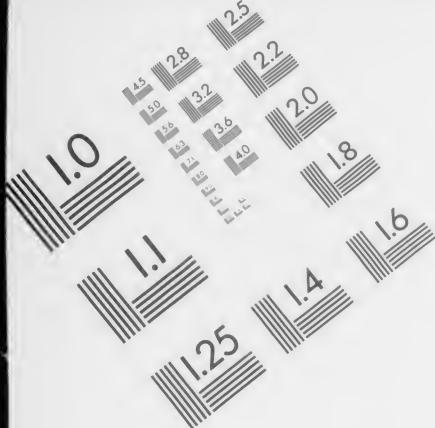


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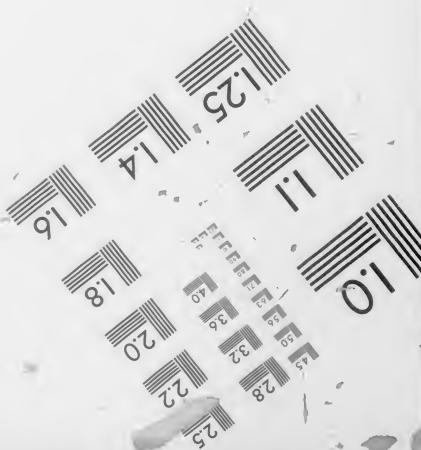
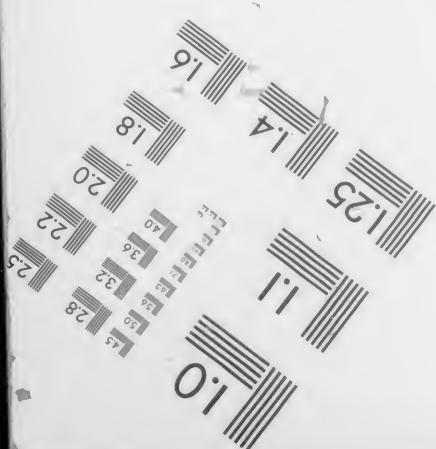
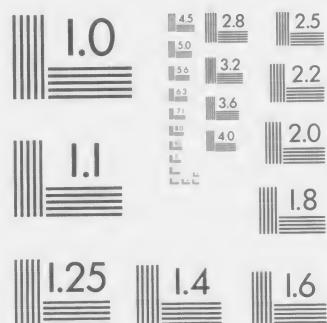
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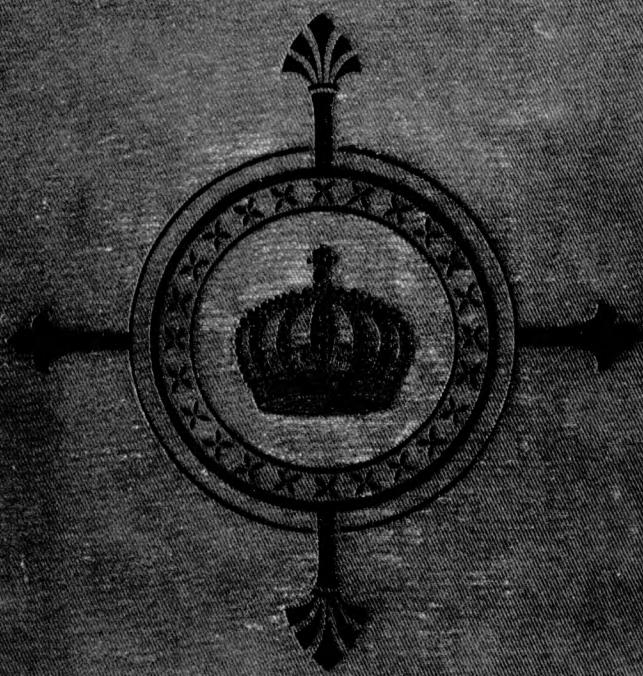
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HISTORY
OF
THE GERMAN EMPERORS
AND
THEIR CONTEMPORARIES.

TRANSLATED FROM THE GERMAN AND COMPILED FROM AUTHENTIC SOURCES.

BY
ELIZABETH PEAKE,
AUTHOR OF "PEN PICTURES OF EUROPE."

ILLUSTRATED.

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THIS HISTORY IS DEDICATED
TO
MY SCHOLARS,

HAVING BEEN WRITTEN ESPECIALLY FOR THEIR USE,
TO REFRESH THEIR MEMORIES,
AND TO RECALL THE PLEASANT HOURS
WHICH THEY HAVE PASSED IN THE PURSUIT OF THIS
"QUEENLY BRANCH OF KNOWLEDGE"

WITH
THEIR FAITHFUL AND AFFECTIONATE FRIEND,
E. PEAKE.

13 Feb 90

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P R E F A C E.

THE Town-House in Frankfort-on-the-Main, called *Roemer*, a building of the fifteenth century, has little architectural beauty, but much historical interest to recommend it, having been the scene of the ceremonies attending the election of the Emperors, and the place where the festivities which succeeded their coronations were held. The walls of the banqueting-room, or *Kaisersaal*, where the Emperors were entertained, and waited on at table by kings and princes, are covered with their portraits in the order of their succession,—fifty-two in number,—painted by Lessing, Bendeman, Bethel, and other eminent living artists. Under nearly every one is the motto which the Emperor adopted at his coronation. At the end of the hall is the “Judgment of Solomon,” by Steinle.

Looking at these portraits reminded me of Carlyle's saying, that “the history of the world is but the biography of great men;” and the thought struck me that it might be a good plan to begin with Charlemagne, and come down to the present time, taking as a clue, through the Middle or Dark Ages, a connected outline of the lives of the Emperors, and the great events which occurred in their times, with a brief mention of their contemporaries, even though it might occasion some repetition.

If this work serves as a guide through any of the intricacies of history, and adds a modicum to the general knowledge of past events and characters, the ambition of the author will be satisfied.

E. P.

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INTRODUCTION.

DURING the civil wars that raged between the sons of Constantine the Great, A.D. 340-355, the Roman garrisons were recalled from the Rhine, and the flourishing provinces of Gaul were left exposed to the incursions of the German barbarians beyond the river. Swarms of Franks and Alemanni, or Suabians, now crossed, and spread devastation as far as the Loire. Forty-five populous cities, Tongres, Cologne, Treves, Worms, Speyer, and Strasburg, besides a far greater number of open towns and villages, were pillaged, and, for the most part, reduced to ashes. The Alemanni already began to establish themselves on the left bank of the Rhine, and the Franks occupied the *island of the Batavians* (now Holland) and Toxandria (Brabant), when Julian, the young Emperor, appeared with his legions, and in the brilliant campaigns of 356-358, defeated the Alemanni at Strasburg, driving them headlong across the Rhine; and making a treaty with the powerful Franks, permitted them to settle down in the depopulated province of Germania Secunda (now Belgium), where they remained, faithful allies of the Romans in the later wars with Attila and the Huns, 451, until they, under Clovis, burst forth in 486 to share the spoils of the perishing Empire of the West.

Tournay, on the river Scheldt, was then the capital of the Franks, and here Childeric I., the father of Clovis,—a brave prince, and whom some consider as the real founder of the French monarchy,—died, in 482, and was buried. In his coffin, which was opened in 1655, were found a châsse of gold, bearing his head, and many other curiosities, now deposited in the Bibliothèque du Roi, at Paris; among them the “Golden Bees,” with which his royal robes are supposed to have been studded. They were, in consequence, adopted by Bonaparte in his coronation vestments, in preference to the *fleurs-de-lis*, as symbols of the imperial dignity.

Clovis (old German, Chlodwig, *i.e.* “famous warrior;” modern German, Ludwig; French, Louis) was born A.D. 465. His first achieve-

ment after the death of his father was the overthrow of the Gallo-Romans, under Syagrius, near Soissons. He then took possession of the whole country between the Somme and the Loire, and established himself at Soissons. In 493 he married Clotilda, daughter of the King of Burgundy. She was a Christian, and earnestly desired the conversion of her husband, who, like most of the Franks, was still a heathen. In a great battle with the Alemanni, at Tolbiac (now Zülpich), near Cologne, Clovis was hard pressed, and, as a last resource, invoked the God of Clotilda, offering to become a Christian on condition of obtaining the victory. The Alemanni were routed, and on Christmas-day of the same year Clovis and several thousands of his army were baptized by Remigius, Bishop of Rheims. Clovis at length took up his residence at Paris, where he died in 511. His great aim was the subjugation of all the Frankish princes, and the union of the whole Frankish people into a single powerful kingdom.

The "good King Dagobert," as the French call him, whose throne* is still to be seen in the Museum of Paris, reigned from 628 to 638, during which time his country rose to much consideration: commerce flourished, and gold and silver, hitherto almost unknown among them, became plentiful.

The kings who succeeded him were called *Sluggards*, from the indolence of their lives, and all the power fell into the hands of the officers called "Mayors of the Palace."

First on the list of these distinguished mayors stands Pepin the Elder, or Pepin of Landen, related to the Merovingian family. He took his name from his castle of Landen (now Liege, in Belgium). Rebellting, with other great lords of Austrasia, against the Regent Brunehaut, he offered the crown to Clotaire II., who, in reward for his services, created Pepin Mayor of the Palace of Austrasia, an office which he continued to hold during the two following reigns. He died in 639.

This Pepin the Elder left by his daughter a grandson, Pepin the Fat, or Pepin of Heristal, who conquered Neustria, and, satisfied that he could have no slave more obedient to his will, caused Thierry III., King of Neustria, to be proclaimed King of Austrasia also, and from that time ruled both kingdoms with energy, and undisturbed by any internal commotion, during the lives of three other do-nothing kings. Pepin married Plectrude, daughter of Hugobert, Duke or King of Bavaria. He died in 714, and his two legitimate sons having died

* Napoleon I. used this throne of Dagobert at his coronation.

before him, Charles Martel, his illegitimate son, succeeded to his power. Charles Martel was much engaged in wars with the Alemanni, Bavarians, and Saxons; but his importance as a historic personage is mostly due to his wars with the Saracens, whom he defeated, between Tours and Poictiers, in 732, in a great battle, and again in Burgundy, in 738, when they had advanced as far as Lyons. He drove them back to the Pyrenees. Charles married for his second wife Sunhilde, daughter of Grimoald of Bavaria. He died in 741, leaving the government of the kingdom to be divided between his two sons, Carloman and Pepin the Short.

Carloman inherited Austrasia, Thuringia, and Suabia; Pepin, Neustria and Burgundy. Pepin and Carloman deprived their half-brother Griffo of his inheritance, and threatened the liberty of his sister, Chiltrude, who withdrew to her mother's country, and was afterwards married to Odilo, Duke of Bavaria.

It was not long before Carloman grew weary of a warrior's life, and, preferring to become a monk, he gave up his power to Pepin, and went to the monastery of Monte Casino, founded by St. Benedict A.D. 529, on a mountain overlooking the town of San Germano, between fifty and sixty miles northwest of Naples. This monastery became remarkable for its noble architecture, its great wealth, its valuable library, its archives, and the learning of its monks. Carloman died at Vienne, on his way to Italy, in 754, and Pepin, his brother, inclosed his body in a coffin of gold and sent it to Monte Casino. His ashes now repose beneath the high altar, in an urn of onyx-stone. A splendid inscription was placed on it in 1628.

Pepin put down a rebellion of the Saxons, brought Odilo of Bavaria to terms, and, by favoring the clergy, secured their favor. Pope Zachary, feeling the importance of obtaining the aid of this powerful Frankish chief against the Lombards, who were then masters of Italy, released the Franks from their oath of fidelity to Childeric, the Merovingian monarch. Pepin at once caused himself to be elected king by the assembly at Soissons, A.D. 752, and was consecrated by St. Boniface, the Apostle of Germany, whom he had made Archbishop of Mayence. Pepin was the first Frankish monarch whose election was sanctioned by the Pope, and these solemn ceremonies put the crown to a great extent at the mercy of the clergy, who from this time took a political rank in the state; and the Latin language, which was also introduced, being the language of the clergy, helped to increase their influence.

Pepin was soon after called to aid the Pope against the Lombards;

INTRODUCTION.

and, marching into Italy with a large army, he compelled Astulf, the Lombard king, to retire from the siege of Rome, and also to restore several cities which had previously belonged to the Greeks, and which he handed over to the Pope. Pepin had hardly left Italy, 755, when he was forced to return, the Lombards having broken their engagements. This time he took Ravenna, Emilia, the Pentapolis, and the Duchy of Rome, and reunited them to the Holy See. Pepin then reduced Aquitaine, after a desolating war of eight years, and shortly after that conquest died in Paris, of dropsy, in 768, and was buried in St. Denis. Pepin's first wife, Leutberge, had three sons and two daughters, all of whom, like their mother, lived and died in obscurity. His second wife was Bertha, daughter of Caribert, Count of Leon. After Pepin's accession to the throne, Pope Stephen III., who visited Paris at that period, solemnly crowned the king and queen, in the magnificent church of St. Denis, A.D. 754. Besides Carloman and Charlemagne, they had another son, called Gilles, and three daughters, one of whom, Giselle, became a nun; another, Rothaïde, married the Count d'Angers, whose son was the celebrated hero Roland, who perished at Roncesvalles. Bertha died at an advanced age, at Choisi, in 783, and was buried by the side of her husband in St. Denis. Pepin left Neustria to his oldest son, Carloman, and Austrasia to Charlemagne.

Neustria was situated between the Atlantic and the English Channel on the north and west, the Loire on the south, the Meuse on the northeast, and Burgundy on the southeast. Being the earliest conquests of the Franks, it was thickly settled, and the centre of their power. Yet Brittany, called also Armorica, in the western peninsula, was inhabited by the pure old Celtic race, as different from the Roman inhabitants as from their conquerors the Franks. Charlemagne was the first to carry war into that country.

CITIES OF NEUSTRIA.

Paris had lost that distinction as capital which it enjoyed under the Merovingians, but figured still as the metropolis of Neustria. It had grown greatly, and was no longer inclosed, like the ancient Lutetia, within the narrow boundary of the island of Notre Dame, but had extended on both sides of the Seine. Here were still the palaces of Julian the Apostate (now called the Palais des Thermes, or Hôtel de Cluny) and Clovis; the ancient cathedrals of St. Medericus and St. Geneviève, besides numerous monasteries, convents, and gardens. Tournay, the early seat of the chiefs of the Salian Franks; Senones, now Sens; Rotomagus, now Rouen; Ambianum, now Amiens. St.

INTRODUCTION.

Omer had a celebrated monastery, in which Thierry IV., the last Merovingian king, died. Boulogne, on the coast, had fortresses and arsenals, and Charlemagne stationed there one of his fleets. Another squadron he placed at Gand, now Ghent, at the junction of the Scheldt and the Lys. At Rheims, Clovis, together with his sister and three thousand of his subjects, was baptized. Soissons still preserved its rank as the ancient capital, and Carloman was crowned there. At Attigny, not far from Soissons, the brave and unfortunate Wittikind, the most distinguished of the Saxon leaders, did homage to Charlemagne, in 785, and was baptized, with thousands of his followers. Tours, on the Loire, was the resort of thousands of pilgrims, who thronged to the shrine of St. Martin.

Carloman reigned over Neustria until his death, in 771, when it fell to Charlemagne.

Austrasia, which Pepin gave to Charlemagne, was much smaller than Neustria; nevertheless, it was an important part of the country, the cradle of the Franks, the old homestead of the brave thanes, chiefs, and warriors who formed the feudal armies of the Franks, the stronghold of the new dynasty in the hereditary castles of Landen and Heristal, on the Meuse, surrounded by the faithful retainers of Pepin. Austrasia extended on both sides of the Rhine, from the Meuse, which separated it from Neustria, on the west, to the Weser, which formed the eastern frontier towards Thuringia, and the Sclavonian nations on the Elbe. It was also on these exposed frontiers that all the assaults of the Germanic, Sclavonian, and Tartaric nations were to be repelled.

CITIES OF AUSTRASIA.

Aix-la-Chapelle (Aque Grani, Latin; Aachen, German); Metz, southeast, on the Moselle, the former capital of Austrasia; Treves and Thionville, on the same river; Speyer; Worms; Mayence; Ingelheim; Coblenz and Cologne, on the Rhine; and Frankfort and Würzburg, on the Main.

The early Franks took possession of property by receiving a straw; to throw down a straw was to renounce all claim to property.

MAYORS OF THE PALACE.

A.D.

PEPIN THE ELDER, or Pepin of Landen, was related to the Merovingian family. He died	639
PEPIN THE FAT, or Pepin of Heristal, grandson of Pepin of Landen	655-714
CHARLES MARTEL, illegitimate son of Pepin of Heristal . . .	714-741
PEPIN LE BREF, or Pepin the Short, son of Charles Martel . . .	741-768

PEPIN OF HERISTAL ruled during the nominal reign of six Fainéant or *do-nothing* kings, viz.: Dagobert II., Clothaire III., Thierry III., Childeric II., Clovis III., and Dagobert III.

CARLOMAN and PEPIN THE SHORT succeeded their father, Charles Martel, in 741. CARLOMAN resigned in 747, and PEPIN ruled alone until 752, when he was elected king at Soissons, and reigned until his death, in 768.

Pepin the Short was succeeded by his sons, CARLOMAN and CHARLES, afterwards CHARLEMAGNE.

FRANK EMPERORS.

	A.D.
CHARLEMAGNE, son of Pepin the Short, King of France	768-814
LOUIS THE PIous, son of Charlemagne	814-840
LOUIS THE GERMAN, son of Louis the Pious	840-876
CHARLES THE FAT, son of Louis the German	876-887
ARNULPH, nephew of Charles the Fat, a natural son of Carloman, Duke of Carinthia	887-899
LOUIS THE CHILD, son of Arnulph	900-911
CONRAD I., nephew of Arnulph	911-918

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FRANK EMPERORS.

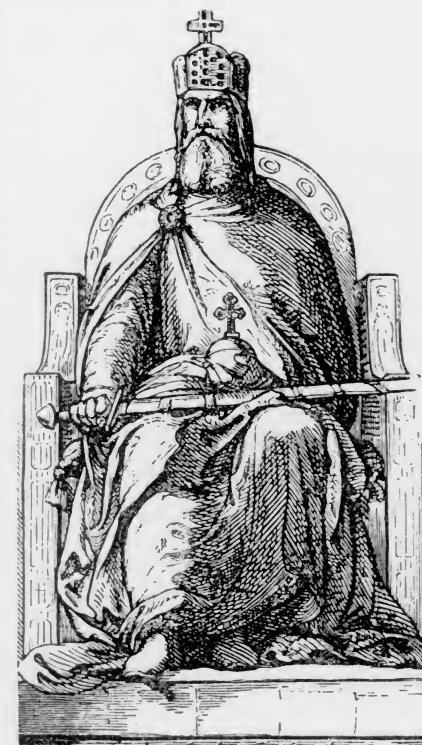
CARLOVINGIANS.

CHARLEMAGNE, KARL DER GROSSE. A.D. 768-814.

"Christus vincit, Christus regnat, Christus triumphat." (Christ conquers, Christ reigns, Christ triumphs.)

CHARLEMAGNE was born A.D. 742, in the Castle of Carlsberg, in Upper Bavaria. Others mention the Castle of Ingelheim, near Mayence; and others, Aix-la-Chapelle, as the place of his nativity. He was one of those characters whose achievements bear the impress of gigantic power, by whom nations have been formed and destroyed, and whose influence has been felt for centuries. He was the greatest reformer of the Middle Ages, when society was in a ferment, and when barbarism and civilization were in the most violent contest with each other. He was also a terrible warrior, who for forty-five years led his immense armies from one frontier of his empire to the other in continual warfare.

He came to the throne in 768, and four years afterwards, in the Diet at Worms, it was resolved



CHARLEMAGNE.

to make war on the Saxons, for the security of the frontiers, which they continually threatened, and for the extension of the Christian religion. That same year he advanced as far as the Weser, securing his conquests by castles and garrisons. Pope Adrian I. then called him to his aid against Desiderius, King of the Lombards. Charlemagne crossed the Alps with two armies, by the Great St. Bernard and Mont Cenis, overthrew the kingdom of the Lombards, and made the Pope his friend by confirming the gift which his father, Pepin, had made to the Holy See, of the exarchate of Ravenna.

In 775 he had another war with the Saxons. The next year he suppressed an insurrection in Italy. In 777 he so completed his victory over the Saxons that their nobles acknowledged him as their sovereign, in an assembly at Paderborn. The Arabs and Moors were making such progress in Spain that he hastened to that country, in 778, and added to his dominions the region between the Pyrenees and the Ebro. It was in this campaign, on his return from the capture of Caesar Augusta, now Saragossa, on the Ebro, that his nephew, the famous paladin Roland, Border-Count of Bretagne, lost his life in the pass of Roncesvalles.

His next conquest was over his cousin, Tassilo II., Duke of Bavaria, whom he deposed at a diet in Ingelheim, and who six years afterwards renounced all his rights to Bavaria, and ended his life in the cloisters of Lorsch. He was the last of the Agilonfingi race, who had ruled over Bavaria two hundred and thirty-three years.

Charlemagne went to Italy in 781, where Pope Adrian I. crowned his second son, Pepin, King of Italy, and his third son, Louis, King of Aquitaine. The war which followed with the Saxons lasted three years before he succeeded in reducing them completely to subjection and in persuading their principal chiefs to be baptized and become his faithful vassals. Subsequently he gained victories over the Bulgarians and the Huns, consolidating and extending his empire, the eastern boundary of which now reached to the river Raab.

On the death of Cynewulf, King of Wessex, in 787, Egbert laid claim to the throne, but had to give way to another claimant, Brihtric, and took refuge at the court of Charlemagne, where he remained thirteen years. On the death of his rival, he was recalled to fill the throne of Wessex, and after ruling that kingdom nine years in peace and prosperity, he subdued the other sovereignties, and was crowned king of all England, A.D. 828.

In the year 800 Charlemagne went to Rome, to help Pope Leo III. subdue the rebellious Romans. On Christmas-day, as he was worshiping in St. Peter's Church, the Pope, unexpectedly, as it appeared, set

a crown upon his head, and, amid the acclamations of the people, saluted him as Carolus Augustus, Emperor of the Romans. Such was still the lustre of a title with which were associated recollections of all the greatness of the Roman Empire, that although it added nothing to his power, yet it greatly confirmed and increased the respect entertained for him.

The age of chivalry had not yet arrived, and what is said of Charlemagne's "Twelve Peers, or Paladins," of his tournaments and knightly pomp and pageantry, belongs to fiction and romance.

The countries he had conquered were Thuringia, situated between the rivers Weser and Saale; Saxony had been subdued and Christianized, after a terrible struggle of thirty-three years. It was situated on the north of Austrasia and Thuringia, having Frisia, now Holland, and Friesland on the northwest. Paderborn, its chief city, where Charlemagne often resided, was in the centre of Saxony. Charlemagne built Bremen and Hamburg as fortresses for the protection of the coasts, and they soon became thriving and commercial cities. Burgundy embraced a tract of country along the Rhone, and nearly all of Switzerland. Its largest cities were Lyons and Geneva, Besançon, a considerable place even in the time of Cæsar, 58 years before Christ, and Dijon, called by the Romans Divio. Aquitania reached across the Pyrenees to the banks of the Ebro, on the south. It contained the provinces of Gascony, Septimania, the Spanish Marches, Corsica, and the Balearic Islands. Toulouse was its capital; the other cities were Bordeaux, Limoges, Perigueux, Fronsac, a strong fortress built by Charlemagne to hold the Aquitanians in check, and Saragossa. Lombardy, or Italy, comprised the greater part of the Italian peninsula, from the base of the Alps, on the north, to the territory of Gaeta and the river Garigliano, on the south, which formed the frontier of the tributary duchy of Beneventum, whose duke did homage to Charlemagne and paid a yearly tribute of twenty-five thousand gold pieces. The chief cities were Pavia, the former capital, Verona, Ravenna, Parma, Genoa, Pisa, Milan, and Turin. Alsatia, or Alsace, was southeast of Austrasia, and Strasburg was its most important town. Alemania—now Baden, Würtemberg, and the northeastern part of Switzerland—was southeast of Alsace. Constance, St. Gall, and Chur (Coire) were the principal towns. Bavaria was east of Alemania. This land of the old *Bojarier*,* especially the region between the rivers Lech and Raab, had been forcing its way into notice since 590 B.C. One of its dukes or kings was Arnulph, brother of that Odoacer who put an

* Bojar (pronounced Boyar), *i.e.* free proprietor of the soil.

end to the Roman Empire, A.D. 476. Regensburg, or Ratisbon, on the Danube, was its capital. The other towns were Augsburg, Passau, Enns, and Salzburg, where Charlemagne gave a splendid reception to the Greek ambassadors sent by the Emperor Nicephorus to settle the frontiers between the two empires. Carinthia, or Karnthen, east of the Tyrol, was settled by Charlemagne with the surviving tribes of the conquered Avars, in 803. Avaria, or Hunnia, was the vast country between the rivers Enns and Theiss, the present Austria and Hungary, in which Charlemagne defeated the barbarians in several battles. His son Pepin continued the war, and driving them, in 796, across the Theiss, destroyed the camp and capital of their king,—the Ringus, or fortified circle,—near Buda, on the Danube, and took an immense booty. Part of these vanquished Avars were forced to adopt Christianity and settle in Carinthia; the mass of the nation fled, however, towards the Black Sea, where they suffered still worse from their enemies, the Bulgarians, and disappeared altogether. Charlemagne then brought German settlers into the conquered territory, and formed the eastern boundary, *Ostrichi*, or Austrian frontier county, with Vienna for its capital. The Slavonic tribe of the Croats, who occupied the northeast of Dalmatia, were his subjects. The States of the Church were ruled by the Pope, but Charlemagne styled himself "Protector of the Patrimony of St. Peter." Its cities were Rome, Ravenna, Padua, Bologna, Ferrara, Rimini, Pesaro, and Ancona.

Venice, enthroned on her hundred isles, was already an independent republic, and it was only a mere ceremony when she sent her ambassadors, in 806, to do homage to the old Emperor at Aix-la-Chapelle.

At the death of Charlemagne, his empire included Italy, the whole of Germany, with the present Hungary, Poland, and Prussia, half of Spain, and all of France.

The most celebrated of Charlemagne's contemporaries was the Caliph of the Saracens, Haroun-al-Raschid,* Aaron the Just, who, after attaining the summit of worldly power and prosperity in the East, sent a splendid embassy from Bagdad to Charlemagne, which, among other presents, brought a magnificent tent, a water-clock, an elephant, and the keys of the Holy Sepulchre at Jerusalem, implying a permission for Europeans to visit it.

Charlemagne spent the last ten years of his life in improving the internal organization and development of his empire, and in this we behold him in all his glory. It would be impossible to give an account

* Haroun-al-Raschid never undertook a journey without at least one hundred men of science in his train.

of the numerous cities, fortresses, churches, schools, high-roads, and bridges which he established in every part of his dominions. He fully recognized the different nationalities he governed,—Franks, Germans, Lombards, Sclavonians, Tartars, Greeks, and Arabs. Before his time each of these people had their own peculiar laws; but he was too wise to allow this state of things to continue, and therefore framed laws for the whole empire, in order that the same justice and right might be meted out to every man.

In his diets on the Rhine, the clergy, nobility, and the mass of free-men assembled in a meadow, where they were marshaled according to their rank around the throne of the great Emperor. His comprehensive mind embraced the most distant portion of his dominions, and even the minute details of income and expense on the farms of his imperial estates.

The great fundamental change undertaken by him was the dissolution of the duchies, and the subdivision of the ancient provinces into counties, which again were subdivided into hundreds, communes, and manors, all with their corresponding officials and their military. He never intrusted an ordinary official with more than one county, except the border-counts. In cases of insurrection, dukes were nominated to quell the rebellion. Bishops began to obtain worldly influence, by being placed, as civil officials, side by side with the military counts, and even above them in matters belonging to the Church; yet they were not allowed to bear arms, nor to be absent long from their dioceses. The Church was divided into archbishoprics or provinces, bishoprics or dioceses, and archdeaconries.

His decrees were issued under this formula: "Our Lord Jesus Christ reigning forever, I, Charles, by the grace and mercy of God, King of the Franks, avowed defender and humble ally of the Holy Church of God."

In 806 Charlemagne called a national assembly at Thionville, and divided his empire in the presence of his three sons, Charles, Pepin, and Louis. To Louis, the youngest, he gave Aquitaine, Gascony, Septimania, the Spanish Border, Burgundy, and Provence; to Pepin, Italy, Southern Alemania, Bavaria, and the eastern lands as far as the Danube and the Upper Rhine; and to Charles, the future Emperor. Austrasia, Neustria, Northern Alemania, the northern part of Bavaria, Thuringia, Saxony, and Friesland. Charlemagne lived to see his two most worthy sons die, and when he, in 814, crowned Louis the Pious Emperor, at Aix-la-Chapelle, he gave this weak and bigoted youth the whole empire, with the exception of Italy, which he bestowed on his grandson, Bernard, the son of Pepin.

Charlemagne promoted agriculture, arts, manufactures, commerce,

and education. He allowed no language but German to be spoken in his family. Whenever he met a scholar, a writer, a poet, whether Frank, Lombard, Goth, Saxon, or English, he at once made him his friend. One of the most noted scholars at his court was Paul Warnefried, so well known under the name of Paulus Diaconus, the Lombard historian. Born of a noble Lombard family, A.D. 730, and educated at Pavia, he was made chancellor at the court of King Desiderius, and while there educated his daughter, Adelperga, and wrote for her his "Historia Romana." Charlemagne sent him word that he made war upon rebels, not on scholars, and invited him to his court and made him chancellor. He aided Charlemagne in his schemes for the promotion of learning, made a collection of homilies, and, at the request of Angilram, Bishop of Metz, wrote a History of the Bishops of Metz, the first work of the kind north of the Alps. Paul remained at court until 787, when he retired to the monastery of Monte Casino, and kept up an epistolary correspondence with the Emperor as long as he lived. This monastery was becoming more and more noted for learning, and famous also for its wealth. In 842 it possessed one hundred and thirty pounds of gold and one hundred and eighty-five of silver, in crowns, chalices, and other sacred vessels.

Alcuin, the most distinguished scholar of the eighth century, the confidant and adviser of Charlemagne, was born at York, A.D. 735. Charlemagne became acquainted with him at Parma, as he was returning from Rome, and in the year 782 invited him to his court. Alcuin became the preceptor of Charlemagne himself, whom he instructed in the various sciences. To render his instructions more available, Charlemagne established at his court a school, called *Schola Palatina*, the superintendence of which, as well as of several monasteries, was committed to Alcuin, who, in the learned society of the court, went by the name of Flaccus Albinus. He had also the care of three important abbeys,—Ferrieres, in Gatinais, St. Lupus, in Troyes, and St. Josse, in Ponthieu. He not only taught, but corrected and restored manuscripts of ancient literature, and founded schools,—Fulda, in the diocese of Mayence, St. Martin, in Tours, Reichenau, in the diocese of Constance, and Fontenelle, or St. Vaudrille, in Normandy. He understood Hebrew, Greek, and Latin. Charlemagne always attended the sessions of the academy in his palace, with all his family and the scientific and literary men of his court, among whom were Peter of Pisa, Leidrodes, Theodolphus, the Archbishops called Peter Grammaticus, and the Abbot of Corvei,—a Benedictine abbey, on the Weser, the oldest and most famous in early Saxony.

801 Alcuin retired from court to the abbey of St. Martin, in Tours, keeping up a correspondence with Charlemagne until his death, in 804.

Eginhard, the biographer of Charlemagne, was a pupil of Alcuin. His talents and acquirements gained him the favor of the Emperor, who appointed him his private secretary, and superintendent of public buildings. Eginhard accompanied the Emperor in all his marches and journeys, never separating from him except on one occasion, when he was dispatched by Charlemagne on a mission to Pope Leo. On the death of the Emperor he was appointed preceptor to Lothaire, son of Louis the Debonnaire. His "Vita Caroli Magni," completed about the year 820, is the most important historical work of a biographical character that has come down to us from the Middle Ages. He also wrote several other works. There is a legend which says that Eginhard's wife, Emma, was a daughter of Charlemagne. A mutual affection had arisen between them, and on one occasion, when the lovers were enjoying a nightly interview, a sudden fall of snow covered the spacious court, thus rendering retreat impossible without leading to a discovery. As the traces of female footsteps could not excite suspicion, Emma carried her lover across the court on her shoulders. This scene was observed from a window by Charlemagne, who united the affectionate pair in marriage.

Aix-la-Chapelle and Ingelheim, on the Rhine, were the favorite residences of Charlemagne. The last years of his life were spent at Aix-la-Chapelle:

"Urbs Aquensis, urbs regalis,
Sedes regni principalis,
Prima regum curia," etc.

In private life Charlemagne was exceedingly amiable, a good father, and a generous friend. He was tall, good-looking; his gait was firm, and his bearing manly and dignified. He had several wives.

The first was Gelene, daughter of the King of Toledo.

The second was Himiltrude, whom his mother, Bertha, persuaded him to divorce for Desiderata, the daughter of Desiderius, King of Lombardy.

The fourth was Hermengarde, whom he soon divorced, and sent back to her father.

Hildegarde, the fifth, was a princess of Suabia, who had five daughters and four sons, the youngest of whom, Louis, succeeded his father. She died, and was buried, at Metz, carrying to the tomb with her the regrets of the Emperor and the nation.

Fastrade, the sixth, was daughter of Raoul, Count of Franconia. She was proud, and incurred the hatred of the nobles. She died young, and was buried first in the abbey and afterward in the cathe-

dral of Mayence. She had two daughters: Hiltrude, Abbess of Farnmoutier, and Theodrade, Abbess of Argenteuil.

Luitgarde, the seventh, was a beautiful German princess. Charlemagne was passionately fond of her; and to please him she accustomed herself to the fatigues of the chase, and always accompanied him in his autumnal hunts, which took place in the forests of Ardennes and Vosges. In 799 Charlemagne placed the iron crown of Lombardy on her brow, and consequently Luitgarde was the first to unite the dignity of queen with the pompous title of empress. She did not long survive these honors, but died childless at Tours, in the year 800, and was buried there, in the church of St. Martin.

Charlemagne had other children, also: Drogon, Bishop of Metz; Hugh the Abbot; and Thierry.

Charlemagne is styled Charles I. in the enumeration both of the French kings and of the German or Roman emperors. He possessed an amount of learning unusual in his age; he could speak Latin and read Greek. He attempted to draw up a grammar of his own language, the German. Besides his Capitularies there are letters and Latin poems ascribed to him. He died January 28, 814, in the seventy-first year of his age and the forty-seventh of his reign, and was buried in the cathedral of Aix-la-Chapelle, in full imperial costume, seated on a throne of gold, his crown on his head, a chalice in his hand, his sword Joyeuse at his side, the Book of the Gospels on his knees, his sceptre and shield at his feet, and the pilgrim's pouch, which he had always borne while living, fastened to his girdle. The Emperor Otho III. repaired the cathedral in 983, and, on opening the mortuary chapel, or tomb of Charlemagne, found the body well preserved. It was opened again in 1165, after the antipope, Paschal III., had made Charlemagne a saint. The venerable relics were removed, and used in the coronation ceremonies of succeeding emperors of Germany. They are now deposited in Vienna. The bones were placed in a marble sarcophagus, and the position of the tomb is marked by a large slab of marble, under the centre of the dome, inscribed with the words, *Carolo Magno*. The throne in which the body of Charlemagne was seated is preserved in the cathedral of Aix-la-Chapelle. It is in the gallery which runs round the octagon, facing the choir. It is an armchair, in shape somewhat like that of Edward the Confessor, in Westminster Abbey, but made of slabs of white marble, which, during the coronation, were covered with plates of gold. Since his canonization, altars have been dedicated to him: one in the cathedral of Aix-la-Chapelle, and one in Frankfort, as well as in some other churches.

LOUIS THE DEBONNAIRE, LUDWIG DER FROMME.
A.D. 814-840.

"Omnium rerum vicissitudo." (All things are subject to change.)

LOUIS THE PIUS, as he is called by the Germans, succeeded his father in 814. He was a good and amiable man, but totally incapable of governing the vast empire intrusted to his hands. He was more occupied with priests than with warriors; ordered parts of the Bible to be translated into German, and strove to improve and cultivate the German language. Being more of a student than a statesman, and trusting his German more than his Frankish subjects, he divided his dominions among his sons, giving Aquitaine to Pepin, Bavaria to Louis, and made Lothaire, the eldest, his partner in the empire. His nephew, Bernard, who held Italy as a fief of the empire, indignant at the elevation of Lothaire, revolted, and broke out in open rebellion.

Being abandoned by his troops, he was taken prisoner, and condemned to death. Louis commuted the punishment by ordering his eyes to be put out. Three days after, the young prince died. In order to prevent further trouble, the three natural sons of Charlemagne were shut up in a monastery and compelled to take monastic vows.

Louis had been married eighteen years before his accession to the imperial throne, and was crowned at Rheims, by Pope Stephen V., in



LOUIS LE DEBONNAIRE.

816. His wife died two years afterwards, deeply regretted by the Emperor and the nation. In the excess of his grief, he declared his resolution to renounce the world and become a monk. At length dissuaded from this purpose, and advised to marry again, all the noble ladies of the empire assembled at Aix-la-Chapelle, and endeavored to outvie one another in attraction. Louis, entirely unacquainted with the qualities and virtues of the fair candidates, chose the most beautiful, who was Judith, daughter of Welf, or Guelph, Duke of Bavaria; and the marriage took place in 819, at Aix-la-Chapelle. Soon after, he built a palace in Frankfort, called the *Saalhof*, a residence to which he was very partial, and in which his son, Charles the Bald, was born in 823.

The queens of those early times were charged with all the expenses of the interior of the palace, and were the depositaries of all moneys destined for the payment of the troops. Judith obtained for Bernard, Count of Barcelona and Duke of Septimania, the situation of chamberlain, which comprised the functions of minister of finance and comptroller of the imperial household. From the birth of her son, this ambitious princess, seconded by the chamberlain, incessantly occupied herself with endeavors to aggrandize her son, and Louis was weak enough to proclaim Charles king over a portion of his estates.

Lothaire, Pepin, and Louis revolted, and many of the principal nobles about the court, whom Louis had loaded with favors, joined them in taking up arms to dethrone the monarch. Judith was forced to retire to the monastery of Laon, where she was arrested by Pepin, who sent her back to his father, after he had obtained her promise to take the veil and to exercise her influence over Louis to determine him to abdicate; neither of which promises she kept. The princes, exasperated, conducted Louis to Saint Medard, in Soissons, and imprisoned the Empress in the royal monastery of St. Radegonde, in Poitiers. The Emperor, meantime, entered into negotiations with his rebellious sons, and the people, having gained nothing by the disorder, and having compassion on their ill-used and legitimate sovereign, replaced him on the throne by universal consent.

Louis had not the courage to punish the offenders; but he was no sooner re-established than he withdrew Judith from her captivity, declaring her vows null, because they had been forced upon her; and she returned triumphantly to the palace. Soon after, she had the happiness of seeing her son Charles crowned King of Aquitaine, and acknowledging the princes who had been the chiefs of the conspiracy to have dispossessed him. But hardly had the flames of this rebellion been extinguished, when a multitude of errors on the part of Louis, and a thirst

for vengeance in his wife, kindled another. The disinheriting of his sons Lothaire and Pepin afforded them a pretext for their unnatural hostility.

In 832, Lothaire, Pepin, and Louis assembled their troops in Alsace, and prepared to march against their father and sovereign. Pope Gregory IV. joined them under the pretext of acting as mediator, but displayed all the zeal of a warm partisan, and threatened the weak monarch with the terrors of excommunication.

The two parties met in a field between Basle and Strasburg, and the Pope, by promises and threats, induced the King to submit to his rebellious sons. The Pope and princes paid so little regard to their promises that the place is called to this day the *Field of Lies*. By the intrigues of Gregory, the monarch was deprived of all support, and deposed by a tumultuous assembly, and the empire was conferred on his son Lothaire, after which the Pope returned to Rome. Louis was taken to the abbey of St. Medard, and condemned to do penance; his son Charles was sent to the abbey of Pruem, or Prüm, not far from Treves; and Judith, after having her head shaved, was confined in the abbey of Tortona, in Lombardy.

But the same circumstances and the same compassion of the people re-established the Emperor on his throne a second time; yet the crown had less attraction for him than his reunion with the wife he loved. Judith returned to court, and became more powerful than ever. Grief had materially injured the health of the Emperor, and she became anxious to secure the succession to her son before the death of his father. On the death of his son Pepin, Louis divided his dominions between Lothaire and Charles, to the exclusion of Louis of Bavaria, who immediately had recourse to arms. While the Emperor was on the march against this rebellious son, tortured with grief, and terrified with an eclipse of the sun, which he deemed an evil omen, he fell ill and died, on an island in the Rhine,* whither he wished to be carried from Frankfort, hoping to recover his health during the summer. He urged his boatmen to row faster, and immediately on landing he requested a tent of leafy branches to be made for him, such as had served him while hunting, and there, away from the clashing of arms and the din of battle, the worn-out monarch, "lying on his couch, lulled by the soothing music of the gurgling waters," breathed his last. He was buried in St. Arnulf's Church, at Metz. He had made provision for his favorite son, Charles, bequeathing him the provinces of Burgundy and Neustria.

His first wife was Hermengarde, daughter of Ingram, Count of Hasby.

* This island is now occupied by the castle called the Pfalz.

Her sons were Lothaire, Pepin, and Louis. She died two years after she was crowned Empress.

His second wife, Judith, daughter of Welf, Duke of Bavaria, the mother of Charles, was artful and intriguing, and few queens ever displayed greater perseverance or obtained greater success. But all her policy could not prevent a terrible struggle, of which she was the cause, between the sons of Louis the Pious, on the bloody field of Fontenay. At length, in 843, she succeeded in adjusting the quarrels between the brothers, by dividing the monarchy among them, and in the same year died at Tours, aged eighty.

During this reign the Saracens subdued Sicily, infested the Tuscan Sea, and threatened to make themselves masters of Italy; and the Normans ravaged the coasts of Flanders, Neustria, and Aquitaine. With enemies on the north and south, discord, crime, and civil war raging within, Europe presented a lamentable picture.

Yet, amid all this war and misery, we find Rabanus Maurer, a German scholar, doing much to promote the improvement of his nation. He was a native of Mayence, who received his education in the Benedictine monastery at Fulda, and subsequently went to Tours, to complete his studies, under Alcuin. After his return, in 804, he became superintendent of the monastic school at Fulda, from which proceeded many distinguished scholars. After many adversities, which the diffusers of light in the Dark Ages always had to encounter, he was consecrated, in 822, Abbot of Fulda, and during the twenty years he held this office the beneficial influence of his literary school, and of his truly Christian church discipline, continued to increase. Dissatisfied with the turbulence of the times, he was desirous of ending his life as a hermit; but the Emperor, Louis the German, obliged him, in 847, to accept the archbishopric of Mayence. In this dignity he died, in 856. In the diffusion and formation of the German language he was very active, and so far succeeded as to introduce preaching in German. He also compiled a Latin and German glossary of the Bible, preserved in several manuscripts,—a valuable monument of the old German language, which has been printed in Schiller's "Thesaurus."

The famous philosopher, Joannes Scotus Erigena, probably born in Ireland, appears to have resided principally in France, at the court of Charles the Bald. His love for the mystic doctrines of the old Alexandrian philosophers was shown by the translation of the writings ascribed to Dionysius the Areopagite, which proved to be a well-spring of mysticism during the Middle Ages.

LOUIS II., THE GERMAN, LUDWIG DER DEUTSCHE.

A.D. 840-876.

(His motto is unknown.)

No sooner was Louis the Pious dead, than his sons began to dispute about their possessions. Charles the Bald and Louis the German united their forces against their brother, Lothaire of Italy, the Emperor; and in 841 a bloody battle took place at Fontenay, near Auxerre, in Burgundy, in which Lothaire was defeated.

The treaty of Verdun followed, in 843. As they had no common language in which to address their followers, Charles, who commanded the Franks and Gauls (now for the first time beginning to be called French), addressed those coming from the north in the *langue d'oui*, much like the modern French,—the greater part German, mixed with a little Latin. Those coming from the south used more Latin than German; to these he spoke in the *langue d'oc*, afterward called the Provençal, the favorite language of poetry, but which, after two centuries, ceased to be spoken.

At the treaty of Verdun, Lothaire was forced to relinquish his imperial title, and take Italy and the tract of country lying between the Rhone, Moselle, and Scheldt on the west, and the Rhine and Alps on



LOUIS LE GERMANIQUE.

the east. This country was then called Lotharingia, or Lorraine. Louis took Germany, and hence is called the German; and Charles assumed the crown of France, which from that time retained the name of France.

Louis the German now fought the Bohemians, Moravians, and Suevians, whom he successively defeated, and then made war on Lothaire and took from him one-half of Lorraine. Louis usually resided at Frankfort, and made that city his capital. His brother Lothaire, just before his death, retired to the monastery at Prüm, and took the habit of a monk. His son had Italy, with the title of Emperor; but dying soon after, his dominions were claimed by Charles the Bald and Louis the German. Italy then became the apple of discord to the whole family.

Louis the German exposed himself in a great degree to the reproach of cruelty at the rebellion of the smaller landed proprietors of Saxony; yet he has, as a ruler, the merit of having made many useful institutions in Germany. The poet Offried, who lived at that time, and who is good authority, says that "Louis governed the East-Frank empire with strength and wisdom, being a worthy king."

He founded the cathedral of Frankfort, and died in his palace, the *Saalhof*, in 876. He was buried in the monastery of Lorsch, a few miles from Darmstadt.

His wife was Emma, a Low Dutch princess. His sons were Louis, Carloman, and Charles the Fat.

As soon as Louis the German died, Charles the Bald of France, who had received the imperial diadem from Pope John VIII. in 875, appeared with an army on the German soil, hoping to subdue the country. But the sons of Louis the German, Carloman, Louis, and Charles, who governed Germany together, boldly opposed the enemy, and entirely defeated the French king, near Andernach, on the Rhine. Charles the Bald died the following year. Carloman died in 880, Louis in 882, leaving Charles, the youngest son of Louis the German, the sole possessor of the throne.

Charles the Bald of France had four sons, only one of whom, Louis, survived him. This Louis had few virtues and many defects. He reigned two years in France, and left two sons, Louis and Carloman, and, some months after his death, a posthumous son, Charles, afterwards surnamed the Simple. Louis and Carloman did not live long, and their brother Charles being very young, the nobles and bishops gave the crown of France to Charles the Fat, the son of Louis the German.

CHARLES THE FAT, KARL DER DICKE. A.D. 876-887.

"Os garrulum intricat omnium." (A garrulous mouth confuses everything.)

CHARLES THE FAT, the third son of Louis the German, came into the possession of the whole empire of Charlemagne, with the exception of Provence. He was crowned at Rome, in 880, by Pope John VIII. He lived mostly at Frankfort, and enriched the cathedral. He had neither physical strength nor powers of mind to support his high dignity, and the Normans ravaged his territories with impunity. In 886 they laid siege to Paris, which was defended by the bravest men in France, with Eudes, Count of Paris, at their head. After Paris had stood a siege of four years, Charles the Fat made his appearance with a large army; but, instead of fighting, he purchased the safety of the city of Paris,

and gave the enemy permission to march into another part of the kingdom, to ravage and lay it waste. This proof of cowardice, added to his pride and gluttony, so disgusted all classes and nations among his subjects, that the princes assembled at the imperial diet, which he had convoked at Tribur, near Frankfort, deposed him, and elected his nephew, Arnulph, in his stead.

Charles fell into such abject poverty as to lack the necessities of life, and was only saved by charity from starvation. He died shortly after his deposition, not without suspicion of violence. He was buried



CHARLES LE GROS.

in the isle of Reichenau, anciently famed for its monastery. This island is in the broad part of the Rhine, where it is more like a lake than a river, and a few miles above its entrance into Lake Constance. His first wife is unknown; his second was Richarda, a princess of Alemania. He left no children.

ARNULPH. A.D. 888-899.

"Facilis descensus Averni." (The descent to Hell is easy.)



ARNULF I.

ill (tradition says he was poisoned), and died at Ratisbon, or Regens-

* Carinthia, German Kärnthen, is a crown-land of the Austrian empire, forming part of the old kingdom of Illyria. Klagenfurt is its capital. The ancient inhabitants were

ARNULPH, nephew of Charles the Fat, a natural son of Carloman, Duke of Carinthia,* was a brave and capable man. He refused the crown of France, but reserved his rights of sovereignty over it. He defeated the Normans in the decisive battle of Louvain, in 891, and built a castle, which still goes by the name of Chateau de César, as a barrier against them. With the aid of the Hungarians, he conquered the Moravians, and undertook two expeditions into Italy, in 894, and again in 895, in the latter of which he gained a victory by an impetuous attack on the city of Rome, which was in commotion caused by the antipopes Sergius and Boniface VI. In 896 he was crowned Emperor, by Pope Stephen VII.; but soon after, he fell

burg, where he used often to reside, and where he was buried, in the cloister of St. Emmerans.

His wife, Jutta, was sister to Luitpold of Bavaria. He left one son, called Louis the Child.

LOUIS THE CHILD. A.D. 899-911.

"Multorum manus, paucorum consilium." (Many hands, little counsel.)

LOUIS THE CHILD, Arnulph's son, was only seven years old when he succeeded his father. He often resided at Frankfort, and governed the state under the direction of Hatto, Archbishop of Mayence. At an early age he took an active part in the affairs of the government, and proved himself worthy of his illustrious descent. Feudalism was daily gaining strength, and the Hungarians were demanding tribute from the provinces they had invaded and subdued.

In the year 907, the brave Margrave Luitpold of Bavaria, the ancestor of the Scheyern and Wittelsbach House, lost his life fighting the Hungarians, while aiding Louis the Child to drive them back to their own country. Louis was obliged to fly, in order to save his own life; and on his return to Bavaria he made Luitpold's son, Arnulph, Duke of Bavaria and the border countries. Louis died, unmarried, in 911. He was buried by the side of his father.



LOUIS IV., L'ENFANT.

the Carni, who derived their name from the Celtic word *carn* or *corn*; Latin, *cornu*, English, *horn*; an allusion to the craggy, horn-like pinnacles of their hills.

After his death, the Bavarians proclaimed Arnulph independent Duke of Bavaria.

Four great vassals of the empire could now aspire to the crown : the Dukes of Franconia, Suabia, Bavaria, and Saxony. The crown was offered to Otho of Saxony, who, on account of his advanced age, declined it, and recommended Conrad of Franconia. Conrad was a descendant of Charlemagne in the female line. He was elected Emperor.

CONRAD I., KONRAD DER ERSTE. A.D. 911-918.

"Fortuna, quum blanditur, fallit." (Fortune deceives when she flatters.)



CONRAD I.

was defeated, and fled to the mountains beyond Salzburg. Conrad

CONRAD, nephew of Arnulph, found great opposition among the unruly dukes of the different German principalities. Arnulph of Bavaria, to confirm himself in his dukedom, consented to the election of Conrad as Emperor, hoping also to obtain influence through his mother, Cunigunde, whom Conrad married after Luitpold's death. Soon after, the Hungarians invaded Bavaria, and Arnulph, with the help of the Suabians, completely defeated them, at Oetting, on the Inn, in 913. He now ventured to uphold his uncles on the mother's side, Erchanger and Berthold, in their attempts to make themselves independent dukes in Alemannia. But Conrad entered Bavaria with a powerful army, and Arnulph

then gave Bavaria to his own brother, Eberhard, secured the possession of Lorraine, and lost his life in fighting with the Hungarians. Before his death, he showed his magnanimity and patriotism by an act for which the Teutonic nation revere his memory. In order to reconcile the powerful Saxons, who had hitherto appeared hostile to the unity of the empire, he advised that his enemy, Henry, Duke of Saxony, should be elected as his successor ; and he ordered his brother Eberhard to carry to Henry the imperial insignia, to prevent the indecision of the vassals, and decide Henry's election. Henry was hunting when the message reached him, and from this incident received the surname of the Fowler.

Conrad died at Limburg, in Bavaria, and was buried at Fulda. His wife was Cunigunde of Suabia, widow of Luitpold, Duke of Bavaria. He left no male descendants.

With the extinction of the German branch of the Carlovingian dynasty the history of the *German nation* begins.

SAXON EMPERORS.

HENRY I., THE FOWLER, grandson, on his mother's side, of Louis the German	A.D. 919-936
OTHO I., THE GREAT, son of Henry the Fowler	936-973
OTHO II., THE RED, son of Otho the Great	973-983
OTHO III., son of Otho the Red.	983-1002
HENRY II., ST. HENRY, great-grandson of Henry the Fowler	1002-1024

SAXON EMPERORS.

HENRY THE FOWLER, HEINRICH DER VOGLER. A.D. 919-936.

"Ad vindictam tardus, ad beneficentiam velox." (Slow to punish, quick to do good.)

HENRY THE FOWLER,
Duke of Saxony, called,
also, the Builder, because
he founded and enlarged
cities, was the grandson of
Louis the German, on his
mother's side.

Henry was proclaimed
by the Thuringians and the
Saxons, and soon recog-
nized by the Suabians and
Bavarians. Through his
ability, he opened the do-
minion of that illustrious
house of Saxony to which
Germany owes its organiza-
tion and the permanent
possession of the imperial
sceptre. He repressed the
ambition of the great vas-
sals, by forming a regular
army, and by building in the
provinces fortified castles,
to which he drew, by the
grant of important privi-
leges, the ninth part of the
inhabitants of the country.
He established *marches*, or
margraviates, to defend the frontiers against the attacks of the Sclavo-
nians and Sorabians. He conquered the Danes of Jutland, and won the
glory of opening the way for Christianity among those savage people.
In 930, Wenceslaus, Duke of Bohemia, was compelled to recognize his



HENRI L'OISELEUR.

supremacy; and the Hungarians, who had continued their ravages in Eastern Germany, were defeated in a great battle near Merseburg, on the Lech, the memory of which is still preserved in their popular traditions.

Tournaments and jousts were introduced by Henry, to exercise his German knights for the equestrian warfare against the Hungarians. The hunting fêtes of the German nobility were superb, and were included among the highest festivities of life. Ladies, from gorgeously ornamented tents, beheld the animated scenes of the chase. In the evening they feasted under tents in the forest, and the jovial company, with their suites, returned by torchlight, amidst the music of the hunting-horns. Large tracts of land were left waste for the chase; and kings and nobles preferred, on this account, to reside in their castles, and despised the quiet dwelling in cities. In order to protect the open country against the Hungarian hordes, Henry built a number of castles, to serve as places of refuge for the inhabitants of the environs. Merseburg, Meissen, Dresden, Nordhausen, Quedlinburg, and many other fortified cities and castles in Saxony and Thuringia, arose at this time. He founded the margraviate of Meissen in 927, and that of Brandenburg in 931. In order to prevent the invasion of the Normans or Danes, he carried the war into their own country, and thus extended the limits of Germany over the Eyder, as far as Sleswig, where he founded a Saxon colony and placed a margrave. He also added Lotharingia to his empire. At the end of the nine years' truce with the Hungarians, he refused to pay the tribute which they had been accustomed to receive. They entered Thuringia and Saxony, but were completely routed by Henry, before Merseburg, in 933, and were obliged to flee. After these successes, he desired to go to Italy, in order to be crowned Emperor at Rome; but he died in Memleben, a little more than sixty years old, after a glorious reign of seventeen years, and was buried with great pomp at Quedlinburg. Henry was distinguished for excellent qualities, mental and bodily, and his naturally clear understanding supplied his defects of education. He appointed his second son, Otho, as the most worthy to succeed him. His first wife was Hadburg, whom he divorced, and then married Matilda, daughter of a Count of Ringelheim, a descendant of the great Saxon chief Wittikind. She was the estimable and honorable mother of Otho the Great.

During the times of Charles the Fat and Arnulph, Alfred the Great had been employed in establishing unity and peace in England, and striving to polish it by literature and art, as he had protected it by arms. In France, the sons of Charles the Bald had shown themselves

so weak that the brave Eudes, Count of Paris, had been elected king; yet his dominions were limited between the Meuse and the Loire, and even in that diminished territory there were several lordships or states, the most powerful of whose rulers were the Counts of Flanders and Anjou. The Saracens were laying waste the shores of Italy, the terrified Popes were calling in vain for aid, and Italy itself had submitted to the Dukes of Friuli and Spoleto.

OTHO I., THE GREAT, OTTO DER GROSSE. A.D. 936-973.

"Statius est ratione æquitatis mortem oppetere, quam fugere et inhonesta vivere." (Better to die for justice than to flee and live without honor.)

Otho succeeded his father in 936, and was crowned at Aix-la-Chapelle, by Hildebert, Archbishop of Mayence, receiving the oaths of fealty of the Dukes of Franconia, Suabia, Bavaria, and Lothringen or Lorraine, as well as of other magnates of the empire. At the dinner which followed, the Duke of Franconia, as lord highsteward, brought in the food; the Duke of Suabia, as cupbearer, credenced the wine; the Duke of Bavaria, as marshal, provided for the knights and their horses; and the Duke of Lorraine, as chamberlain, was master of ceremonies. From this time these four offices were retained in the empire.

Otho's reign was a succession of eventful and generally triumphant wars, in the course of which he brought many turbulent tribes into subjection, acquired and maintained almost supreme power



OTHON I., LE GRAND.

in Italy, where he imposed laws with equal success on the Kings of Lombardy and the Popes at Rome; consolidated the disjointed power of the German emperors; and established Christianity at many places in the Scandinavian and Sclavonic lands, which lay beyond his own jurisdiction.

His earliest achievement was a successful war against Boleslas, Duke of Bohemia, whom he reduced to subjection and forcibly converted to Christianity; next the Dukes of Franconia and Bavaria were compelled to succumb to his power, the former paying the penalty of his opposition to Otho by defeat and death in battle, and the latter by the confiscation of his territories, which, together with the lapsed and recovered fiefs of the empire, were bestowed on near and devoted relatives of the conqueror.

After subduing the Slavi of the Oder and the Spree, for whose instruction in the Christian religion he founded the bishoprics of Havelburg and Brandenburg, driving the Danes beyond the Eider, compelling their defeated king to return to the Christian faith and do homage to himself, and after founding, at the suggestion of his mother's former chaplain, Adeldag, the bishoprics of Aarhuus, Ribe, and Sleswig, which he decreed were forever to be free from all burdens and imposts, he turned his attention to the affairs of Italy.

Berengar, Marquis of Friuli, had poisoned Lothario, the young King of Italy, and allowed himself to be crowned, along with his son Adalbert, in 950. To establish himself firmly in his new position he wished the widow of Lothario, the beautiful Adelheid of Burgundy, to marry his son. She refused, and he besieged her in her castle of Canossa, on Mount Apennine. Adelheid called Otho to her aid, and the chivalrous Emperor, in 951, crossed the Alps to win his lovely bride and the imperial crown of Italy. Berengar was conquered, deposed, and banished,—an event of the utmost importance, because henceforth Italy drew the almost entire attention of the German Emperors to the affairs of that country, and hindered them from consolidating their power in their own.

Berengar, at the imperial diet of Augsburg, in 952, was compelled to acknowledge Italy to be a fief of the German empire. He, however, seized the first opportunity to rebel. Otho sent his son Ludolf against him. Ludolf was successful, but died, in 957, of poison, administered, it was believed, by Willa, niece of Hugo, King of Italy, and wife of Berengar. Again Berengar recovered the throne, but behaved with such intolerable tyranny that his subjects and the Pope called in the aid of the Emperor. Berengar was captured, and sent as a prisoner to Bamberg, in Bavaria, where he died, in 966.

Otho was acknowledged King of Italy by a diet held at Milan, and after being crowned with the iron crown of Lombardy, was, in 962, recognized by Pope John XII. as the successor of Charlemagne, crowned by him at Rome, and took the title of Emperor of the Holy Roman-German Empire. The Germans then adopted the principle that the King of Germany became, by his election, King of Italy, and Emperor. The usage of the triple coronation continued for centuries, and no King of Germany, until Maximilian I., took the title of Emperor without being crowned by the Pope.

Otho lost no time in asserting his imperial prerogatives; and, having called a council, deposed Pope John, whose licentiousness had become a burden to Italy and a scandal to Christendom, and caused Leo VIII. to be elected in his place. Fresh wars were the result of this step. Popes and antipopes disturbed the peace of Rome; but through all these disorders Otho maintained the supremacy which he claimed as Emperor, and made the clergy and people swear that they would no longer choose a Pope without his consent or that of his successors.

Otho's favorite scheme of uniting the richly-dowered Greek princess, Theophania, with the young prince Otho, his son, met with such contempt from the Greek Emperor that his outraged pride soon plunged him again into war. His inroads into Apulia and Calabria, however, proved convincing arguments in favor of the marriage, and Theophania became the wife of young Otho, with Calabria and Apulia for her dowry.

Otho extended the limits of the empire, and restored the prestige of the imperial power more nearly to the condition which it had occupied under Charlemagne than any other Emperor. He appointed counts-palatine, founded cities and bishoprics, and was a wise and just ruler.

He died at Minsleben, in 973, aged sixty-one, and was buried in the cathedral of Magdeburg, which he founded.

His first wife was Edith, daughter of Edmund, King of the Anglo-Saxons, the mother of his son Ludolf, who gave him much trouble, but who died in 957.

His second wife was Adelheid, the widowed Queen of Italy, and the mother of Otho II.

The epitaph placed on his tomb was, "Three reasons for sorrow are hidden by these stones. He was Emperor; the pride of his fatherland; and the ornament of the Church."

Bruno the Great, Archbishop of Cologne, Duke of Lorraine, one of the most eminent men of his time, was born in 928. He was the third son of Henry the Fowler, and brother of the Emperor Otho the Great.

Baldrich, Bishop of Utrecht, and Israel Scotigena were his tutors. His surprising knowledge, sagacity, and eloquence secured for him an immense influence over the bishops and clergy, while his liberality, meekness, and great earnestness of heart won the affection and reverence of the laity. He was of great assistance to his brother the Emperor, at his court, held an influential position among the chroniclers, poets, and philosophers, and was made chancellor of the empire. He accompanied Otho to Italy in 951, and honorably distinguished himself by fidelity to his brother when Otho's own son Ludolf and his son-in-law, Conrad of Lorraine, rebelled against him. Bruno died at Rheims, in 965. He wrote a commentary on the Pentateuch, and several lives of saints.

CONTEMPORARIES.

The most important man in England at this time was St. Dunstan, who was born in Glastonbury, Somersetshire, in 925. He was of noble birth, and even remotely related to the royal family. His early studies were pursued with extraordinary assiduity. He was an excellent composer in music, played skillfully upon various instruments, was a painter, a worker in design, a caligrapher, a jeweler, and a blacksmith. He delighted King Athelstane with his music; but the courtiers, envying him, denounced him as a sorcerer, and procured his expulsion from court. He retired to Glastonbury, and continued his studies and his work; took the clerical habit, and acquired such a reputation for sanctity that Edmund I., on his accession to the throne, in 940, recalled him to court. In the reign of Edred, who succeeded Edmund, in 946, the Saint began to distinguish himself as a statesman, and the vigorous policy of Edred's reign is affirmed to have proceeded from the inspiration of Dunstan. Edred was succeeded by Edwy, in 955. He detested Dunstan, who was obliged to escape to Flanders. A rising took place among the Northumbrian Danes after the flight of Dunstan. Edgar, the brother of Edwy, was chosen king. Edwy's beautiful wife, Elgiva, had been seized and murdered, and Edwy died of a broken heart, in 958, and was succeeded by his brother Edgar, a boy of fifteen. Dunstan returned to England, and again ruled the kingdom with vigor and success, and consolidated the detached states into more compact integrity and union than had ever been known before. In 960, Dunstan was made Archbishop of Canterbury, on the death of his friend, Odo the Dane, and went to Rome to receive the pallium at the hands of the Pope. On the death of Edgar, a fierce contest took place between the partisans of Edward the Martyr and his half-brother Ethelred, whose mother, Elfrida, caused Edward to be murdered; and

Dunstan was compelled to place the crown on the head of Ethelred. The credit and influence of the great monk now declined, and, soured and exasperated at the triumph of his enemies, he retired to Canterbury, where he died of grief and vexation, in 988. He was a man of extraordinary abilities, and, though despotic to the last degree, he was not blindly so, like a commonplace despot. His ambition was ever under control of his wisdom and his fixed ideas.

At an early period of his life he introduced the Benedictine order of monks into the land, and monasteries continued to be founded or endowed in every part of the kingdom; and such were the multitudes who devoted themselves to the cloister, that the foreboding of the wise Bede was at length accomplished,—above a third of the property of the land was in possession of the Church, and exempted from taxes and military service.

In France, the brave Count Eudes had died, and Charles the Simple, grandson of Charles the Bald, was recognized as sole king. In 911, Rollo, a leader of the Normans, appeared in France, and Charles, to secure the rest of his kingdom, offered to bestow upon him an extensive territory between the Seine and the sea. He also offered him his daughter in marriage if he would become a Christian. Rollo accepted both propositions, and he and his followers were baptized, and settled themselves in what has been since called Normandy. Rollo took the title of Duke, and was required to do homage for his fief of Normandy,—complying with all the established ceremonies but one,—that of kissing the King's foot,—consenting, however, to do it by proxy. The imbecility of Charles led to his deposition by his subjects, and the crown was offered to Hugh the Fair, nephew of Eudes, who declined the title of king in favor of his brother-in-law Raoul, but retained the authority. Charles died in 929, and Raoul in 936.

Hugh again declined the crown, and sent to England to invite Louis the Stranger, son of Charles the Simple, to return. Louis's want of honesty and sincerity rendered his abilities of little service to himself or his country. Louis died in 954, and Hugh the Fair in 956. Hugh is said to have been the most powerful man who never wore a crown. He was married three times, and each of his wives was a king's daughter. All his wealth and power was inherited by his son, Hugh Capet.

OTHO II., THE RED, OTTO II., DER ROTHE. A.D. 973-983.

"Cum hominibus pacem, adversus vitia bellum." (Peace with every one, but war with the wicked.)



OTHO II.

King of Denmark, and Micoslav of Poland, now for the first becoming a political power in Europe. For a time fortune inclined to the side of the rebels, but Otho's astuteness circumvented their designs. He

* Freysing is a town in Bavaria, on the river Isar. It has been the seat of an episcopal see since the eighth century.

marched against Henry, who, on account of this rebellion, was sur-named the *Quarrelsome*, conquered him, and placed him under guard, at Ingelheim. In a few weeks he escaped, and was crowned King of Germany by the Bishop of Freysing. Full of anger, Otho fell upon Bavaria, defeated the rebels, who fled to Bohemia, deprived Henry of his dukedom, and gave it to his own cousin, Otho of Suabia. He then marched against the Danish king, who had been making successful incursions into Saxony. Otho attacked Harald on the Dannevirke, a famous fortification on the narrow neck of land at Sleswig, but was un-successful. Otho retired, vowing that he would return before another year and force every Dane to forswear paganism. Otho kept his promise, defeated Harald the next year, and compelled him to receive baptism as the badge of his defeat. Otho stood sponsor for Harald and his son Sweyn.

He then went to Lorraine, which the French king had seized as a former appanage of his crown, and, after a partial defeat, Otho con-quered; not content with this advantage, he pursued and captured Lothaire, devastated Champagne, and went to Paris, where he burned one of the suburbs.

Scarcely was this war ended when the disturbed condition of Italy called Otho across the Alps. His presence put a stop to the insurrec-tion at Milan and Rome, where he re-established order, and having advanced into Lower Italy, he defeated the Saracens, drove back the Greeks, and having re-established his supremacy in Apulia and Calabria, which he claimed in right of his wife, made himself master of Naples and Salerno, and finally of Tarentum, in 982. The Greek Emperor, alarmed at the successful ambition of Otho, called the Saracens again into Italy, who gave him battle with overwhelming numbers.

It was in this battle that Otho of Suabia, Duke of Bavaria, was wounded mortally. After his death, the Bavarians requested the Em-peror to give them back their duke, Henry, which he did; and Henry ruled Bavaria henceforth in peace with his neighbors, lost his title of *Quarrelsome*, and received that of Peaceable.

In battling with the Saracens, Otho was not only defeated, but taken prisoner, and carried on board a Greek ship, where, watching his opportunity, he leaped into the sea, swam vigorously, reached the shore, and was received by his troops with the greatest joy.

"Doch plötzlich, was tönt am Bord für Geschrei?
Sie schleppen die Spiesse, die Bogen herbei,
Wie die Fischer in nordlichen Meeren,
Wenn den Wallfisch sie brausen hören."

" Ihm nach ! Zu den Rudern ! Hinab, in den Kahn !
Der Kaiser sprang in den Ocean !
Verdamm't, uns entwischet die Beute !
Ihm nach, ihr säumigen Leute !

" Doch der taucht unter den Wassern fort,
Bis er ihnen entschwunden. Schon nahet der Port,
Am Ufer stehen die Seinen,
Ihn umschlingend mit freudigem Weinen."

(Suddenly, what shriek is that on board? Spears are seized, bows are bent,
Like fishermen in Northern seas, when they hear the roaring of the whales.
After him! To the oars! Down with the boat! The Emperor sprang into the ocean!
Damnation! our prey is escaping us! After him, ye sluggards!
There he dives along under the water, and disappears. He is nearing the shore!
On the beach stand his soldiers—now they embrace him with tears of joy.)

Otho now hastened to Verona, where a diet was held, which was numerously attended by the princes of Germany and Italy, and at which his infant son, Otho, was recognized as his successor. This diet is chiefly memorable for the confirmation by Otho of the franchises and privileges of the Republic of Venice, and the enactment of many new laws, which were added to the celebrated Longobard Code.

Otho's death, at Rome, in 983, arrested the execution of the vast enterprises against the Greeks and Saracens which had been planned at the diet of Verona, and left the empire embroiled in wars and internal disturbances. He was buried at Rome.

His wife was Theophania, daughter of the Greek Emperor Romanus II. Otho III. was their son.

Theophania's sister Anna married the Grand Duke Wladimir I. of Novgorod, and carried civilization into Russia. Wladimir was baptized at Cherson, in 987 (hence the introduction of the Greek ritual in Russia), and died in 1015, having endeavored to give his people a higher degree of civilization.

OTHO III. A.D. 983-1002.

" Facile singula rumpuntur jacula, conjuncta non item." (Single arrows are easily broken, not so when united.)

OTHO III., who was only three years old at his father's death, was at once crowned, by the first Elector of Mayence, Archbishop Willigis, at Aix-la-Chapelle, in 983. The government was administered with extraordinary skill and discretion by three female relatives, his mother,

Theophania, his grandmother, Adelheid, and his aunt, Matilda, Abbess of Quedlinburg, who, in conjunction with Archbishop Willigis, directed his education. His tutors were the highly distinguished men, Bernward, Meinwerk, and Gerbert, afterwards Pope Sylvester II. As he grew up, his teachers were so gratified with his intelligence, attention, and progress in his studies that they called him "the wonder of the age."

The princes of the imperial family disputed the right of these royal ladies to the custody of the young king; and Henry of Bavaria, the *Quarrelsome*, the nearest relative, having seized the person of Otho, tried to usurp the supreme power; but, being opposed by the majority of the other princes of the empire, he was compelled to release him in consideration of receiving back his forfeited duchy.

Directed by his mother and grandmother, and as his father had, in a measure, done before him, he adopted the Byzantine court ceremonies, and early showed a preference for foreign customs. He soon proved that he had inherited the great qualities of his forefathers, for, as soon as he was capable of bearing arms, he defeated the troops of the patrician Crescentius, the self-styled Consul of Rome, and thus restored order in the Roman territories.

In 996, he was crowned Emperor, by his uncle Bruno, Pope Gregory V., who was the first German Pope, and who was elected when he was only twenty-four years old. He spoke German, Latin, and Italian, and was called Gregory the Less. When Otho had settled the affairs of Italy, he returned to Germany, where he defeated the Slavonians, who had long carried on war against the empire; and having forced



OTTHON III.

Micislav of Poland to do him homage, he raised the Polish territories to the rank of a kingdom, in favor of Micislav's successor, Boleslas.

The renewed rebellion of Crescentius, who drove Gregory from the papal throne, compelled Otho to return to Italy, where success attended his measures. Crescentius, who had thrown himself into the castle of St. Angelo, was seized and beheaded, together with twelve of his adherents; the antipope, John XVI., was imprisoned; Gregory was restored; and, on the speedy death of the latter, Otho's old tutor, Gerbert, Archbishop of Ravenna, was raised to the papacy, under the title of Sylvester II. Otho, elated with success, took up his residence in Rome, where he organized the government, erected new buildings, and showed every disposition, notwithstanding the ill-concealed dissatisfaction of the Romans, to convert their city into the capital of the Western Empire.

The near approach of the year 1000, to which so many alarming prophecies were then believed to point as the end of the world, induced Otho to undertake a pilgrimage to the Holy Land; where he founded an archbishopric. On his return, after visiting Charlemagne's grave at Aix-la-Chapelle, and removing the consecrated cross suspended from the Emperor's neck, he again repaired to Rome, to carry out his plans of establishing a Roman empire. The insurrection of the Romans forced him to leave Rome at the risk of his life, and he withdrew to Ravenna, to await powerful reinforcements from Germany; but before they had crossed the Alps Otho died, aged twenty-two, apparently from poison, which was said to have been given him by Stephania, the widow of Crescentius, who had deliberately set herself to win his affections that she might have an opportunity of avenging the death of her husband; and with him the male branch of the Saxon Imperial House became extinct.

He was buried at Aix-la-Chapelle, according to his last request.

"O Rom! wo meine Blüthen
Verdorrt, wie dürres Laub,
Du sollt ihn nicht behüten
Den kaiserlichen Staub.
Die mir die Treue brachen,
Zerbrächen mein Gebein!
Beim grossen Karl in Aachen
Will ich begraben sein."

(O Rome! where my bloom withered, like a dry leaf, Thou shalt not keep my royal dust. Those who broke faith with me would destroy my bones. By great Karl, in Aix-la-Chapelle, will I be buried.)

Archbishop Willigis, of Mayence, was the son of a wheelwright; but

so pious and learned that he was held in great esteem by Otho II., who appointed him his court preacher and made him a member of his privy council. Willigis was for a long time jeered at and ridiculed by the courtiers on account of his birth; and, to make sport of him, they often sketched him on the walls of the court with his hand on a wheel. Willigis, instead of resenting it, wrote underneath the pictures with his own hand :

"Vvilgis, Vvilgis,
Recole, unde veneris."

(Willigis, Willigis, recollect whence thou camest.)

And he never forgot it, for, when he was made Archbishop of Mayence, he emblazoned a wheel on his coat of arms.

Adalbero, the celebrated Bishop of Metz, died in 1005. He was the son of Frederick, Duke of Lower Lorraine, and Beatrice, sister of Hugh Capet.

The castle of Quedlinburg was the residence of the Abbesses of Quedlinburg, who were princesses of the empire, independent of all spiritual sovereigns save the Pope, having a vote in the Diet, and a seat on the bench of Rhenish bishops. They were generally members of royal or noble families. The town itself, many convents and nunneries, and very extensive domains, belonged to the abbess, and she numbered among her vassals many nobles of high rank. At the Reformation the abbesses adopted the Lutheran faith, losing thereby their feudal sovereignty, and the greatest part of their estates. The convent was sequestered in 1802, and is now falling to decay, stripped of its splendor, and in part converted into a school.

HENRY II., SURNAME THE SAINT, HEINRICH DER HEILIGE. A.D. 1002-1024.

"Nihil impense ames, ita fiat, ut in nullo contristeris." (Never be too fond of anything, so wilt thou never grieve.)

HENRY, son of Henry the Quarrelsome of Bavaria, and great-grandson of Henry the Fowler, was elected and crowned first at Mayence and afterwards at Aix-la-Chapelle. He had accompanied the Emperor Otho III. in two campaigns into Italy, and rendered him much service. In 1001 he celebrated the marriage of his sister Gisela with Stephen, King of Hungary, who was afterwards canonized.

Henry of Schweinfurt had been active in aiding Henry to be elected

Emperor, because he hoped to obtain the dukedom of Bavaria; but, being disappointed, he turned against the Emperor, by whom he was soon defeated, and Bavaria given as a fief to Henry of Luxemburg, brother of his wife, the Empress Kunigunde.



HENRI II.

tween the nobles and the Emperor, the Emperor would be the loser. Most of the monarchies in Europe, since the fourth century, had been elective, at least to the extent that the sovereign could be chosen "from among all the princes of the reigning family."

Although Henry was no less valiant than devout, his piety was deeply tinctured with the fanaticism and superstition of the times in which he lived. It was his custom, whenever he entered a city for the first time, to repair immediately to a church dedicated to the mother of the Saviour, and there to pay his devotions. On one occasion, when visiting the abbey of Verdun, he was seized with such a weariness of soul, such a disgust for the pomps and cares of his position, that he

Henry made three expeditions into Italy,—was crowned Emperor in 1004, by Pope Gregory VI,—and expelled the Greeks and their partisans from Capua, Benevento, Salerno, and the southern part of Italy. He favored the clergy to the detriment of the imperial power, and gave great privileges to the Papal See.

Under the Othos, and Henry, the vassals succeeded in establishing the hereditary transmission of fiefs, and soon also that of the principal dignities of the crown. The imperial throne was elective; the fiefs and dignities became hereditary; and it was easy to see that, in a contest be-

was about to renounce the world and take the habit of a monk. The prior, Richard of Verdun, told him that the first vow required of him would be *obedience*. The Emperor expressed his readiness to obey; thereupon the prior enjoined him to retain his kingly office and discharge its duties. "The Emperor," said he, "came hither to learn obedience, and he practices this lesson by ruling wisely."

He founded the fine Romanesque cathedral of Bamberg, with its four towers, and when he died, in 1024, he was interred in it. His wife, Kunigunde of Luxemburg, on his death, took the Benedictine habit, and set an example not only of piety and charity, but of industry, working constantly when not engaged in prayer, often using the words of St. Paul, that those who did not work had no right to eat. She died in 1040, and was buried at Bamberg, by the side of her husband. They had no children. Henry was the last of the Saxon Emperors, who had reigned gloriously for a century. They had all endeavored to preserve the unity of Germany, and to make the empire hereditary in the family.

CONTEMPORARIES.

In France, the last of the male line of the Carlovingians had died,—Louis V.; and the history of the third race of French kings had begun with Hugh Capet, who was crowned at Rheims. He did not rise above the standard of mediocrity, but possessed good strong sense, and that practical knowledge which is commonly called worldly wisdom. Gerbert, his secretary and the tutor of his son, Robert the Pious, had left him to become tutor of the Emperor Otho III., and afterwards Archbishop of Ravenna, and then Pope Sylvester II. Hugh Capet died in 996, and was succeeded by his son Robert the Pious, who was better fitted to be a monk than a king.

He had married a fourth cousin, Bertha, daughter of Conrad I., King of Burgundy. Robert had omitted to request a dispensation from the Pope for this marriage, and was therefore commanded to separate from her. Robert, although very devout, was too much attached to his wife to yield to the will of the pontiff. Gregory V. therefore excommunicated him, and placed the kingdom under an interdict. At length he was forced to yield. Bertha retired to a convent, and Robert married Constance of Provence, a proud and indolent princess. Robert spent his time chiefly with the monks and in making pilgrimages, and on his return from one of these he fell ill and died, in 1031.

The continued depredations of the Danes in England so exasperated

King Ethelred that a plot was formed to massacre all the Danes in the kingdom, and was carried on with such secrecy that it was executed in one day. While the English were congratulating themselves on being thus rid of their enemies, Sweyn, son of Harald Bluetooth, who had been informed of this treacherous cruelty, furious with revenge, appeared on the coast with a large fleet, and Ethelred was compelled to fly into Normandy, and the whole country came under the power of Sweyn.

Sweyn died in 1017, and his son Canute was left in peaceable possession of the whole kingdom. Canute, surnamed the Great, ruled with vigor and success. His brother Harald, King of Denmark, died in 1018, and that kingdom was again united to England, which, being superior in refinement, arts, trade, and agriculture, exercised a beneficial influence on Denmark, and under Canute the last vestiges of pagan worship were destroyed in that country.

About the same time Christianity was introduced into Sweden, under Olaf Skotkonung, who was baptized by an English clergyman, Sigfried; and into Norway, under Olaf the Pious, who, with three hundred brave men, traveled around and destroyed the heathen idols.

Canute, in the latter part of his life, built churches and endowed monasteries, and, in 1026, made a pilgrimage to Rome. Upon his journey he chanced to meet with the German Emperor, Conrad II., whom he induced to renounce his claims to the margravate of Schleswig, founded by Henry the Fowler; and a marriage was stipulated between Canute's daughter Gunhilda and Conrad's son Henry. Canute died in 1036.

King Stephen of Hungary found his people barbarous and heathens, and he civilized and Christianized them. He also subdued the neighboring pagans, and incorporated them with his own people. He married Gisela, sister of the Emperor Henry II., a princess "full of most blessed conditions." Unhappily, all their children died before their parents; and Stephen transferred all the rights and power of his crown to St. Peter. Pope Sylvester II. sent him in return a royal diadem, and a cross to be borne before his army. This crown was preserved at Presburg, and is the same which was placed on the fair head of Maria Theresa on the memorable day of her coronation.

It is in the days of the Saxon Emperors (918-1024) that we discover the first formation of the celebrated *Italian Republics*, which afterwards performed so brilliant a part in the history of the Middle Ages. It was the Lombard free towns that sided with the Italian Popes, while the landed nobility took part with the German Emperors,

which led to the protracted struggle between the Guelphs and Ghibellines.

After the death of Henry II., an Emperor had to be elected. The archbishops and nobles met on the Rhine, between Mayence and Oppenheim, where Königstuhl stands on Franconian land, and, after a long time, their choice fell on the two Conrads of old Franconian descent as the most worthy. The eldest lived between Speyer and Worms, and had married Gisela, the rich widow of Duke Ernst of Suabia, and had great influence in Southern Germany. The younger Conrad had great possessions in Rhenish Franconia, and had, through his step-father, Frederick of Upper Lorraine, many friends in North Germany.

The elder said to the younger, "On us, members of one family, the choice has fallen; therefore it becomes us first of all to be united. Let neither of us do anything to hinder perfect freedom in this election, but let us remain faithful and true to each other." The younger gave him his hand and the kiss of peace.

The eldest obtained the most votes,—young Conrad voting for him,—and the noble and widowed Empress Kunigunde, stepping forward, gave the imperial insignia to the Emperor-elect, who was immediately afterwards crowned in the cathedral of Mayence.

FRANCONIAN EMPERORS.

	A.D.
CONRAD II., the Salic,* great-grandson of the eldest daughter of Otho the Great	1024-1039
HENRY III., son of Conrad II.	1039-1056
HENRY IV., son of Henry III.	1056-1106
HENRY V., son of Henry IV.	1106-1125
LOTHAIRE OF SUPPLINBURG, whose wife was a descendant of the uncle of St. Henry	1125-1137

* Salians, Salic Franks: a people who first appeared on the island of the Batavi, and who probably took their name from that of a river in their former country, and first used it when they emigrated to Batavia (the Latin name for Holland). From the Salians originated the Salic code of laws, which was probably drawn up in Latin before the time of Clovis, by four of their most distinguished men,—Arogast, Bodogast, Salogast, and Windigast. It was in force, in some degree, even as late as the eleventh and twelfth centuries. The sixty-second article of this code is very remarkable, according to which, in Salic estates,—that is, those which the Salic Franks had obtained by conquest in Gaul and modern France,—the daughters were excluded from the inheritance, and the sons alone were considered capable of succeeding as heirs. Notwithstanding this article had reference only to private estates, the application of it was extended even to the throne, except by force of some law different from the ordinary usage. The Salic law was first alleged against Edward, in the contests between Philip VI. of France and Edward III. of England, about the French crown, and has, since that time, remained always in force.

FRANCONIAN EMPERORS.

CONRAD II., THE SALIC, KONRAD DER SALIER.
A.D. 1024-1039.

"Omnium mores, tuos imprimis observato." (Heed the manners of all, thine own first.)

CONRAD II. was the great-grandson of the eldest daughter of Otho the Great. "Had Kaiser Karl arisen from the grave, he could not have been greeted by the people with more joy." The old proverb said, "On Conrad's saddle hung the stirrups of Charlemagne." He was one of the most remarkable of the earlier Emperors of Germany. He repressed the most obnoxious features of the feudal system, and by conferring the great duchies of Bavaria, Suabia, and Carinthia on his son, reduced the dangerous power of the great dukes of the empire.

Conrad was crowned again at Aix-la-Chapelle, and then began his glorious career. In three years he had Germany, Burgundy, and Italy, with Rome, under his control. He was crowned at Milan, and afterwards in Rome, in 1027, by Pope John XIX.

In 534, Burgundy had passed under the rule of the Franks; but the



CONRAD II.

weak government of the later Carlovingians allowed it to become independent, and it was named the kingdom of Arles, from the residence of its first king, Boso, who died in 887. It passed, after a time, into the possession of Duke Rudolf, nephew of Hugh Capet of France, who made himself master of Upper Burgundy. His son Rudolf II. was crowned King of Italy in 921, and united Lower Burgundy, or Arles, to his own kingdom in 928. Conrad the Peaceable succeeded, and after him Rudolf III., who, dying without male issue in 1032, bequeathed his kingdom to the Emperor of Germany, whose son, Henry III., made it a duchy of the German empire.

Conrad made a tour through Germany, to administer justice and acquaint himself with and, if necessary, to ameliorate the condition of his subjects. With a view to this last he instituted the *God's Truce*, which forbade fighting during Advent and Lent and the weekdays specially consecrated by the memory of the Passion and Resurrection of Christ,—that is, from the sunset of Wednesday to sunrise on Monday. Order, right, and morality predominated during his reign.

Conrad invested his relative, Humbert the White-Handed, a descendant of one of Charlemagne's protégés, with the fiefs of Chablais and Aosta. Humbert was the founder of the House of Savoy, which took its name, according to old Italian historians, from the security of its roads,—*Salva via*, safe road; relatively safe, doubtless, in comparison with other roads across the Alps, which were infested with numerous bands of brigands. The largest towns in his domains were Geneva, Chamberg, Susa, Savona, and Nice.

In 1036, a rebellion in Italy again compelled Conrad to cross the Alps; but his efforts this time to restore his authority were unsuccessful, and he was forced to grant various privileges to his Italian subjects. Shortly after his return he died, at Utrecht,* in 1039, deeply regretted by his people, and was buried in his favorite city of Speyer, in the cathedral which he founded.

His wife was Gisela of Suabia, a noble woman, who devoted herself in counsel and in deeds to her imperial husband.

* Utrecht, called by the Romans *Trajectum ad Rhenam*,—ford on the Rhine,—and in monkish Latin, *Ultra Trajectum*, hence *Utrecht*.

The first Bishop of Utrecht was St. Willibrod, an Englishman, who left his own country in the seventh century to convert the heathen Frisons, who then possessed the land. He baptized many thousands of them, and the Pope ordained him bishop over them; while Charles Martel presented to him the castle of Utrecht for his residence, and the surrounding district for his see.

HENRY III., THE BLACK, HEINRICH DER SCHWARZE.
A.D. 1039-1056.

"Qui item aufert, execrationem in benedictionem mutat." (He who ends a quarrel changes a curse into a blessing.)

HENRY III., Conrad's son and worthy successor, extended German supremacy over Hungary, a part of which he conquered and annexed to Lower Austria, while he repressed the insolence and despotism of the spiritual and secular princes of Germany, and gained the respect of his contemporaries by his zeal for justice and his valor in arms. Nature had given him the talents, and education the character, suitable for a ruler. The Church was compelled to acknowledge its dependence on him.

Upon his first journey over the Alps he deposed three Popes, Sylvester III., Gregory VI., and Benedict IX., who was elected Pope during his boyhood, in 1033; but in 1038 the Romans rose in indignation and banished him, on account of his unexampled licentiousness. He was reinstated by Conrad II., and again formally deposed by the faction of the Consul Ptolemaeus and the antipope Sylvester III., and, after three months, was once more installed as Pope by means of bribery. Then he sold his papal dignity to John Gratianus, Gregory VI., but was still regarded



HENRI III.

as Pope. Henry, to remove such gross scandals from the Church, deposed all three in 1046, and caused the Bishop of Bamberg to be appointed in their stead, under the name of Clement II. But after the death of Clement, in 1047, who was probably poisoned, Benedict once more, through bribery, gained the papal chair, and held it eight months, when he was again displaced, and died in a convent.

Henry then obliged the Romans to renounce the free election of the Pope, to proclaim him and his successors patricians, and to give them, in token of their supremacy, a green robe, a golden ring for the finger, and a circlet of gold for the head; and established his right to interfere in the choice of the Roman bishops so firmly, that, as long as he lived, the papal chair was filled in submission to his will. The remainder of the clergy were also under his strict scrutiny. In all parts of his German, Burgundian, and Italian territories no spiritual dignitary dared to bestow any important office, or to appropriate the property of the Church, without consulting him. The temporal lords he held not merely in dependence, but in actual subjection. The duchies and counties he filled or left vacant at his pleasure, and the whole empire was at length changed into a monarchy dependent upon him alone. Henry now reigned despotically, but displayed in everything which he undertook a steady and persevering spirit. The priests and clergy gave him their approbation, and the surname of the Pious. But an untimely death deprived the empire of a powerful arm at a period of great importance, and the crown of Charlemagne fell into the hands of a child. Henry died in 1056, after he had, three years before, caused his son to be chosen his successor, and was buried in the cathedral of Speyer.

His first wife was Gunhilda, daughter of Canute the Great of England; his second, Agnes of Poitou, mother of Henry IV.

Bruno, Bishop of Toul, and Count of Hapsburg, a relative of Conrad the Salic, was made Pope, under the name of Leo IX. (St. Leo), 1049. Hildebrand accompanied him to Rome. At the council of Rheims was sung "*Veni Creator*,"—author unknown.* Hildebrand was then subdeacon.

* This hymn is attributed to St. Gregory.

HENRY IV., HEINRICH DER VIERTE. A.D. 1056-1106.

"*Multi multa sciunt, se autem nemo.*" (Many know much, but not themselves.)

HENRY was only six years old when his father died. His mother, Agnes, was regent, assisted by Archbishop Hanno of Cologne, who was extremely strict with Henry, and by Archbishop Adalbert of Bremen, who was extremely indulgent. The great vassals of the empire strove to aggrandize themselves during Henry's minority; and Agnes, to win friends and partisans, gave away the great fiefs of Bavaria, Suabia, and Carinthia; but it was only giving new allies to the disaffected vassals.

Rückert, in his "Henry IV.", puts these words, in strict accordance with history, in the mouth of the Empress :

"The German princes quarreled with each other and defied me;
As often as an injury or misfortune befell the Empire, they charged me with it.
The most powerful and refractory I thought to win through fiefs and gifts,
And thus made smaller the inheritance of my son, which I strove to keep for him.
My Bavarian states I gave to Otho of Nordheim; and to Rudolf of Rheinfelden,
Who carried away my daughter, only eleven years old, instead of punishing,
I gave as her dower the duchy of Suabia. They who should have
Been the best friends of my son, are now the worst among his enemies.
But the greatest wrong done to the mother and the Empress was that done
By the Cologne Archbishop, who enticed the boy from Suibert's island,
On the Rhine, where with my people he was keeping joyfully the Whitsuntide.
But, when he saw the boat was taking him away, he leaped into the river,
And my young Henry's life was saved with difficulty. Then thought I
To retire within the cloister, when other sorrow came. The Bremen Adalbert
Robbed him from the Cologne Hanno, archbishop robbed archbishop.
Then princes stole him. Thus, like a ball, they tossed him to and fro;
Each striving all the while to seize advantage. Audacious friends
Led him from one folly to another,—unworthy favorites entangled him
In Saxon feuds at first; and then, thoughtlessly, with Rome."

The state of society at this time was frightful; wickedness seemed to have reached its bounds, and men looked for the end of the world. Bishoprics and abbeys were put up at auction and given to the highest bidder, and the Popes, too, shared in the general corruption.

From the fall of the Roman Empire, the only centre of action was the Church, which, by her influence, independent of times and places, could act upon every people, communicating a regular movement in the midst of their constant agitations, and rallying around her every eminent mind, by the science of which she alone was the depositary.

The Church had more than once saved towns and countries; she had organized barbarians by converting them to Christianity, and alone possessed the power to check the bloody dissensions of nations and individuals, by compelling them to accept the *Truce of God*. It is not surprising that such benefits should have been repaid by general homage. Thus the papacy became possessed of immense power. They had not only what Pepin and Charlemagne had given them, but St. Stephen of Hungary had transferred to St. Peter all the rights and power of his crown. Robert Guiscard,* who defeated and took prisoner Pope Leo IX., treated the pontiff with every mark of respect, and profited by his victory to obtain a grant of his conquests as a fief of the Holy See.

Such was the state of society, and such the power of the papacy, when Hildebrand, a simple monk of Cluny, in Burgundy, son of a Tuscan carpenter, comes

into notice. His reputation for wisdom and austere virtue called him to the councils of the sovereign pontiffs, where everything gave way before the inspirations of his ardent genius. His whole life was devoted to the independence of the Church and the regeneration of manners; and his reforms began even long before he was made Pope. Under Leo IX. and Victor II., several bishops who had been appointed by the Emperor and had been convicted of simony were deposed by his

* Robert, who was called the *Cunning Count*, or *Guiscard*, the obsolete English word for *wiseacre*.



HENRI IV.

advice; the celibacy of the clergy—a masterpiece of policy—was proclaimed by Stephen IX. at his instigation; and finally he prevailed upon Nicholas II. to issue a decree reserving to the cardinals the free election of the Pope, with the simple reserve of the Emperor's confirmation.

Henry, a fiery and aspiring youth, at the age of fifteen assumed the government at the diet of Goslar. The pernicious counsels of Adalbert, Archbishop of Bremen, soon produced troubles, especially in Saxony, where Henry committed many acts of violence. The Saxons joined the Thuringians, who suffered the same grievances, and drove Henry from Saxony, destroyed many of the castles which he had built to overawe the inhabitants, and compelled him to come to an accommodation.

When Hildebrand was spoken of for Pope, he endeavored to persuade Henry not to confirm his election, warning him that his imperial dignity would not save him from the censure which his irregular life deserved. Henry, however, approved the election, and Hildebrand, in 1073, was made Pope, with the title of Gregory VII. In 1074, the Council of Rome proscribed simony, the traffic in holy things, and the marriage of priests. These decrees were carried to the two kings who had particularly favored these abuses,—Philip I. of France and Henry. Both promised submission. Henry had again marched against the Saxons with a powerful army, and attacked them at Langesalza, on the river Unstrut, where they suffered a total defeat.

Gregory's next council decided that the investiture of ecclesiastical property should no longer belong to laymen. Henry rejected the Pope's decision, and, flushed with his triumph in Saxony and Thuringia, determined not to allow this decree to be put in force. Besides this, the Saxons had sent accusations against Henry to the Pope. Gregory therefore summoned Henry to Rome, on pain of excommunication, to answer the complaints of the Saxons. Henry regarded this threat so little that he instigated the bishops, who were assembled at Worms by his order, to renounce their obedience to the Pope. Gregory pronounced the sentence of excommunication against him, and Henry in return sent a deposition of Gregory to Rome.

But Henry's scandalous life had roused all Germany against him; even his mother, the Empress Agnes, took sides with the Pope.

According to the Saxon laws, it was not until the Emperor-elect had been crowned by the Pope that he obtained the imperial power and title. The law of Suabia said, "The temporal sword is intrusted to the Emperor by the Pope." The law of Germany declared that every

one under sentence of excommunication, who did not obtain a reversal of the sentence before the end of the year, should forfeit his fief and his patrimony.

Henry's position was as critical as it was mortifying, for most of the great vassals threatened to depose him unless he obtained the Pope's pardon, and this could not be done without humbling himself before a power which he detested. As there was no choice left him, he set out for Italy at once. The Pope was at the castle of Canossa, belonging to the Countess Matilda of Tuscany. The town of Modena, in which was this celebrated castle, is about twelve miles southwest of Reggio. Here Henry was obliged to wait three whole days in winter, with nothing but a woolen tunic to protect him from the cold. After he had abased himself by three days' supplication, bareheaded and barefooted, the Pope pardoned him, and Henry returned to Germany, meditating new plans of vengeance.

The insolence with which the Pope used his victory produced a reaction. The Italian princes, who had long been dissatisfied with Gregory, and were desirous of deposing him, gathered around Henry, on his return from Germany, with a large army. Henry led them from victory to victory until he reached Rome, where he had himself crowned by the antipope Clement III., in 1084, and while he was besieging Gregory in the castle of St. Angelo. The heroic old man was delivered by the Norman, Robert Guiscard, who gave him a refuge in his states. Gregory died soon after, repeating the words, "I loved justice and hated iniquity, and therefore I die in exile."

Henry now led a worthier life, and maintained his position for thirty years against anathemas, excommunications, and rival Emperors, all of whom perished lamentably.

Rudolf of Suabia, whom the German princes elected at Forchheim, in 1077, was killed in battle, on the Elster, in 1080, by the Emperor's faithful field-marshal, Godfrey of Bouillon. Godfrey was of French descent on his father's side, but, as Margrave of Antwerp, and afterwards Duke of Lorraine, a prince of the German empire.

Hermann of Luxemburg, deserted by his retainers, died a violent death, in 1088.

Egbert of Meissen was killed shortly after his election, in 1090.

Henry's oldest son, Conrad, rebelled against him, and perished in Italy, in the bloom of manhood, A.D. 1101.

The Emperor then caused his second son, Henry, to be elected his successor and crowned, under the stipulation that he should not interfere with the government during the life of his father. The Emperor

was particularly loved by his subjects on the Rhine and in Franconia, to whom he had always been a kind ruler. Unfortunately, this son, whom he had always treated with affection, instigated by bishops and princes, regardless of his oath not to interfere with the government, assembled an army, and marched against his father, whom he met at Coblenz. Here, feigning repentance, he persuaded his father to accompany him to Bingen, where he seized and confined him in the neighboring castle of Maxburg, threatening him with death if he did not give up the imperial insignia and retire to Ingelheim for the remainder of his life. The Emperor, however, escaped to Liege (Lüttich), where he found friends. The burghers of Cologne flew to arms, and hastened to his aid; but death, in 1106, freed them from further strife. "Thy inheritance is small, for thou hast left me nothing," were the last words he uttered, when dying, to his son.

"Er raubte mir den Purpur, stiess mich hinab vom Thron.
Und wisst Ihr seinen Namen? Der Rauber ist mein Sohn!"

He robs me of the purple, he thrusts me from the throne.
And would ye know his name? The robber is my son!

He was carried to Liege, and buried in St. Lambert's Church; but the ban of excommunication was still in force, and he was obliged to be removed and buried on an island in the river Meuse. Shortly afterwards his body was taken up and carried to Speyer, where it was received by his faithful burghers with honorable and sorrowful demonstrations, and laid in a coffin in St. Afra's Chapel. Five years later, Henry V. compelled the Pope to grant his father absolution and recall the papal ban. His remains were then deposited with great pomp and ceremony in the cathedral of Speyer, which he had finished and richly endowed in his lifetime.

Henry IV. had received from nature good talents, prudence, and courage; but his defective education had rendered him in the highest degree stubborn. He was an able warrior, and was victorious in sixty-two battles.

His first wife was Bertha, Margravine of Susa, and the mother of Conrad and Henry V. His second was Praxides, or Agnes, who ran away from her imperial spouse.

HENRY V., HEINRICH DER FÜNFTE. A.D. 1106-1125.

"Miser, qui mortem appetit, miserior qui timet." (Unhappy he who seeks death, still more unhappy he who fears it.)



HENRY V. was born in the year 1081. He made himself disgracefully notorious by his conspiracy against his father, and by his cruel treatment of him. No sooner had he ascended the throne than he declared himself against the usurpations of the Pope, and the unfortunate question of investiture again distracted the empire. He was faithless, violent, and fierce; but bold, brave, and cunning in battle. He warred on Hungary and Poland without being defeated, yet also without conquering them. He had trouble with the magnates of his empire, who had reason to mistrust him, and whom he treated harshly and kept in continual strife.

In 1111, he married Matilda, daughter of Henry I., King of England; and the rich dowry of this princess gave him the means of under-

taking an expedition across the Alps, in order to receive the imperial crown from the Pope in Rome. Pope Pascal II. had incited Henry against his father, and hoped great things from his pupil; but he would consent to crown Henry only upon the condition that those rights claimed by Gregory should formally be conceded; and, as the bishops continued to add fuel to the fire already kindled, Henry determined

to put an end to the dispute by an act of violence. He caused the Pope to be carried away from the altar while at mass, and cut down in the streets of Rome all who opposed him.

After an imprisonment of two months, Pascal yielded. Henry was crowned without any new conditions, and, upon his knees, received from the proud prelate permission to inter in consecrated ground the remains of his unhappy father. The disturbances in Germany soon required Henry to leave Italy. While he was engaged fighting against Lothaire, Duke of Saxony, the Pope excited a rebellion in Italy and among the princes of the German empire, declaring that the peace which had been concluded with the Emperor had been compulsory. This war lasted two years, and devastated Germany in a shocking manner; after which Henry made a second expedition to Italy, and compelled Pascal to fly to Apulia. After Pascal's death, which soon took place, the cardinals elected Gelasius II. Henry, dissatisfied with this, caused Bourdin, Archbishop of Braga, under the name of Gregory VIII., to be chosen. Gelasius went to Vienna, where he collected together a council and excommunicated Henry. The successor of Gelasius, Calixtus II., did the same at the Council of Rheims. These excommunications, and the continual insurrections of the nobility, at length forced Henry to yield. In the Concordat of Worms, 1122, he renounced the right of investiture *by the ring and staff*, and confirmed to all the churches the free choice of their prelates; but the choice of the bishops and abbots of Germany was to be made in the presence of the Emperor, and the person elected was to receive investiture of the Emperor *by the sceptre*, in regard to his *temporal possessions*, which were subject to *feudal tenure*. The Pope, on his side, gave up the investiture by the *sceptre* of the ecclesiastical domains, which were also subject to feudal tenure.

Thus the Pope was only the spiritual head of the Church, the Emperor the first and greatest king of Europe.

The General Council of the Lateran, in 1123, confirmed this agreement; and from that time the election of the Pope has belonged exclusively to cardinals.

Henry laid claim to the estates of Matilda of Tuscany, after her death, as fiefs of the empire. He was planning to make war on France because that country had not helped him, as he had expected, in his difficulties with the Pope. He died shortly after, at Utrecht, in the forty-fourth year of his age, and was buried in the cathedral of Speyer. He left no children, and with him ended the Franconian line, which had reigned one hundred years. After the Emperor's death, his wife Matilda

went to Normandy, where her father married her to Geoffrey Plantagenet, eldest son of Foulques, Earl of Anjou. Her son afterwards became Henry II., King of England.

Two old families now laid claim to the imperial throne,—the Guelphs (Welfs) and the Ghibellines, the Hohenstaufen lords of Wibelin. The Guelphs held Bavaria, and had temporary possession of Tuscany and Lombardy, the rich inheritance of the Countess Matilda. The Hohenstaufens were masters of Suabia and Franconia. Frederic von Hohenstaufen was a nephew of Henry V. The Pope and his friends wanted neither of these, and, in an underhand way, procured the election of Lothaire, Duke of Saxony and Count of Supplinburg, the son of Gerhard of Supplinburg.

LOTHAIRE OF SUPPLINBURG. A.D. 1125-1137.

"Audi alteram partem." (Hear the other side also.)

LOTHAIRE, Duke of Saxony, had been the most powerful adversary of the two preceding Emperors. After the death of Henry V., he was elected at Mayence, through the influence of the clergy, and even, it is said, in opposition to his wishes. He was submissive to the Popes, and soon after his election renounced the prerogatives which had been guaranteed to the imperial power at the Concordat of Worms.

Frederic of Hohenstaufen and Conrad of Franconia refused to recognize him, and Lothaire passed the greater part of his reign in contending with these powerful enemies. He had been crowned by the Pope's legate, and, after bringing Frederic and Conrad to terms, marched into Italy, to aid Pope Innocent II., who had been driven from his apostolic throne by the antipope Anacletus II. and the Normans. After reinstating Innocent, he was crowned by him; and then, driving back the Normans, conquered Apulia and Calabria. On his return to Germany, he fell ill, and died in the cottage of a peasant, in the Bavarian Alps, and was buried at Königslutter, in Brunswick.

His wife was Richenza, daughter of Henry the Fat, the last male descendant of Henry the Fowler. Lothaire had no sons. His patrimony he bestowed on his son-in-law, Henry the Proud of Bavaria, who married his daughter Gertrude.

CONTEMPORARIES OF THE FRANCONIAN EMPERORS.

A glance at the rest of Europe during the reign of the Franconian Emperors—that is, from A.D. 1024 to 1137—may not be uninteresting.

In England, the disorders of the sons of Canute the Great induced the English to place a monarch of the Saxon line upon the throne; and Edward, surnamed the Confessor, was by general consent crowned king in 1041. He married Edith, daughter of Earl Godwin, of the West Saxons. The English probably thought they had chosen an English king. But Edward had been taken to Normandy when a boy, and had lived there until he was called to the throne. He was very fond of his young cousin, Duke William; and his chief thought was to get his other French friends over to England, and to give them as many fiefs and estates as he could. His mother, Emma, who had married Canute for her second husband, seemed to love her younger children better than she loved him.

Edward made a Norman monk, named Robert, who had been Abbot of Jumièges and had built its cathedral, Bishop of London, and in 1050, on the death of Archbishop Eadsige, made him Archbishop of Canterbury. This seemed strange to the English, who had never had a foreigner in Canterbury since England had been united into one kingdom. When his cousin, Duke William, was twenty-three years old, he came to England and made him a visit. Earl Godwin and his sons, Harold and Tostig, were ruling England wisely. Edward, when he



LOTHAIRE II.

was about fifty-three years old, having no children, sent an embassy to the Emperor, Henry III., for permission to go to Hungary for the Etheling Edward, the son of Edmund Ironside. Edward was living in that country with his wife, Agatha, who was a niece of the Emperor Henry II., or St. Henry. They had three children, Edgar, Margaret, and Christina: the boy had an English name, the girls Greek names. In 1057, Edward and his children came to England; but he never saw his uncle, the king, for he died soon after he landed, and was buried in St. Paul's Minster. That same year another great man died, Earl Leofric, and was buried at Coventry. His wife was the beautiful Lady Godiva, for looking at whom *Peeping Tom* was struck blind. The English say that "Peeping Tom must have been one of King Edward's Frenchmen, for at that time the English did not use Scripture names."

Edward the Confessor's great object had been to build a great monastery in honor of St. Peter at Westminster, and he lived just long enough to finish it. He kept Christmas in London; the minster was hallowed on Innocents' Day, but the king was too sick to be there, so the Lady Edith stood in his stead. The king died on the 5th of January, 1066, and the next day being the Feast of Epiphany, he was buried in his own new church of Westminster. He was the last male descendant of Cerdic who reigned over England.

William of Normandy said that Edward had willed him the crown. The Wise Men said that the king had named Harold to succeed him, because Edgar the Etheling was too young. Then followed the war, and at the battle of Hastings Harold was defeated and slain, and thus ended the Saxon monarchy in England, which had continued for more than six hundred years.

William the Conqueror possessed superior talents, both political and martial, and employed both with remarkable vigor and industry. Stigand and Lanfranc, Archbishops of Canterbury, were the most learned men at that time.

His son, William Rufus, who succeeded him, possessed vigor, decision, and policy; but was violent, perfidious, and rapacious. Anselm, Archbishop of Canterbury, and Odo of Bayeux were the most learned men in his time.

Henry Beauclerc succeeded his brother, William Rufus, in 1100. He was a prince of great accomplishments, both in mind and person, and England was prosperous during his reign.

Edgar the Etheling escaped with his sister Margaret to Scotland, after the death of Harold. Malcolm Canmore, the young King of Scotland,

who had regained his possessions from the usurper Macbeth, gave them a friendly reception, and shortly after married Margaret.

William the Conqueror looked upon Scotland as a fief of England, and sent his oldest son Robert to fight Malcolm. Robert, who, whatever his faults might be as a private character, was one of the most courteous knights and polished gentlemen of the age in which he lived, finding his forces inadequate, entered into negotiation with Malcolm, and finally cemented the auspicious amity which he had established between his royal sire and the warlike husband of the heiress presumptive of the Saxon line of kings by becoming the sponsor of the infant princess Edith, whom he named Matilda, after his own mother, Matilda of Flanders,—little thinking that this Matilda of Scotland would one day be the honored and noble wife of his young brother Henry, and the mother-in-law of the Emperor Henry V. of Germany.

In France, Robert the Pious had died, and was succeeded by his son, Henry I., an insignificant character. Philip I., son of Henry, came to the throne when he was only fourteen years old. Left entirely to his own guidance, he became a slave to his vices. He had naturally a good disposition and a fine person; but all the faculties of his mind were lost in sloth and sensuality, and his personal beauty was destroyed by excessive gluttony.

His son, Louis the Fat, succeeded him in 1108. Louis had a good heart, an inflexible love of justice, a friendly disposition, and a gay and cheerful temper. In the early part of his reign he was engaged in constant war with his great vassals, and in putting a stop to the outrages and robberies of the lesser nobles, in both of which he was successful. Arts, sciences, and commerce began to improve in his reign. He died in 1137.

Andreas I., King of Hungary, in order to secure the crown to his son Salomo, betrothed him, though only seven years old, to Sophia, a daughter of the Empress Agnes, and then had him crowned; but the magnates of Hungary took up arms for Bela, the king's brother. Agnes sent Bavarian troops to aid Andreas, but he was totally defeated. This misfortune so disheartened the Empress that she laid down the government of Bavaria, and, in 1061, gave it in fief to Count Otho of Nordheim. In 1070, Otho took part with the Saxons against Henry IV. The Emperor defeated him, and not only deprived him of his patrimony in Nordheim and his estates in Saxony, but took away Bavaria also, and gave it to Otho's son-in-law, Guelph, son of Azzo of Este and the Guelph princess Kunizza, who had large possessions in Bavaria and Suabia. Guelph I., related through his mother to

the old race of Guelphs in Bavaria, to ingratiate himself further with Henry, separated from his wife Ethelinda, and married Judith, daughter of Count Baldwin of Flanders, and afterwards aided Henry to defeat the Saxons on the Unstrut. In the beginning of the strife between Henry and Gregory VII., Guelph took sides with the Pope, and, in 1077, Henry deprived him of Bavaria.

To make up for this loss, Guelph brought about a marriage between his son Guelph II. and Matilda of Tuscany, the strongest ally of the Pope. At length, father and son finding that Matilda had given all her possessions to the Pope as early as 1077, they broke their engagements. The younger Guelph separated from Matilda, and the elder, leaving the Pope, took part again with Henry, who reinstated him in Bavaria, with the probability of its becoming hereditary in his family. In 1100, Guelph I. joined the unfortunate crusade with William of Aquitaine, and died the next year, on his return from the Holy Land, at Paphos, in the island of Cyprus, leaving two sons, Guelph II., in Bavaria, and Henry on his estate in Suabia.

Guelph II. helped Henry V. to drive Pope Pascal from Rome, and dying childless shortly after, his brother Henry succeeded him in Bavaria. Henry supported the nomination of Lothaire of Supplinburg, and was rewarded by him with the marriage of his daughter and heiress Gertrude to Henry, second son of Duke Henry. The magnificence with which this marriage was celebrated between Gertrude and Henry gave him the surname of Henry the Proud. After the death of his father and the Emperor Lothaire, the lands of Henry the Proud reached from the Adriatic to the Baltic.

About half a century before the battle of Hastings, the Normans had begun to take possession of Southern Italy. Forty Normans, returning from a pilgrimage to Jerusalem, landed at Salerno while the city was sore pressed by the Saracens. The Normans easily put to flight the invaders, and, on their return home, told such wonderful tales of the glory that was to be won there, that three hundred of their countrymen set forth under the guidance of Raynulphus, and entered the service of the Duke of Naples. Raynulphus was rewarded by the gift of the castle of Anversa, in 1026, and the title of Count, under the sovereignty of the Emperor Conrad II.

Tancred of Hauteville,* the brave old Baron Tancred, the friend and companion of Duke Richard the Good of Normandy, had twelve

* The ruins of the castle of Hauteville are still seen in the neighborhood of Coutances, in Normandy.

sons, renowned for their valor, three of whom, William, Humphrey, and Drogo, went to Italy to help their countrymen drive out the Greeks, and in 1041 the open war began. In 1047, Robert and Tancred joined them, and somewhat later, the younger brothers, Roger, Malger, and Godfrey; and soon the Greeks were not only driven out of Italy, but the Normans extended their dominion over Apulia and Calabria. The victorious Normans then divided the territories among themselves, and fortified every height and defile with impregnable castles, from whose towers the blood-red banner of the north waved in proud defiance of Greek Emperors and Roman Popes.

Robert Guiscard, however, was the soul of that great enterprise; he was the hero of the age, the strongest warrior among the strong, who, in his heavy panoply, sprang up from his fallen steed and wielded with equal dexterity his broadsword in his right hand and his lance in the left. He carried his arms and his glory across the Ionian Sea to Greece, where his fair enemy, Anna Commena, the purple-clad princess and historian, in spite of her anger and terror, expressed the admiration with which Robert Guiscard inspired her. She said that he was "an Achilles in combat and a Ulysses in cunning; that he with firmness executed his designs, and, above all, aspired to independence and glory." Nay, the image of his manly beauty had made such an impression on the imagination of the Greek princess, that when celebrating the noble appearance of a hero, she calls him *handsome like a knight from Normandy*.

The Normans had become the terror of all Italy. Pope Leo IX. with a large army marched against them, but found himself suddenly surrounded at Civitella. The soldiers of St. Peter were totally routed. The Pope was taken prisoner, but honorably treated by Robert Guiscard, who received the broad and beautiful lands of Southern Italy as a fief of the Holy See of Rome, and became afterwards the staunchest defender of the Popes against the German Emperors.

The next conquest was Sicily, where the Saracens killed a nephew of Roger and ate his heart, believing that it would give them something of his valor. Pope Innocent II., forgetting the fate of Leo IX., met Roger II. in the field, and, like his predecessor, was defeated, and compelled to comply with the demands of the victorious Norman. Roger demanded and received the title of *King of the Two Sicilies*, A.D. 1130. Palermo was his residence.

In 1056, Milan, Pavia, Lodi, Como, and other populous and wealthy cities of Lombardy had already begun to constitute themselves as independent republics, with their consular governments, city banners,

and militia. Pisa and Genoa, long rivals in commercial enterprise and military prowess, drove the Saracens from the island of Sardinia in 1009, and then divided it between them. In 1092, the Pisans obtained Corsica as a fief of the See of Rome, and Venice had extended her conquests along the Istrian and Dalmatian coasts.

In Spain, the provinces occupied by Christians were a very insecure possession, being frequently overrun by the Arabs. The Kings of Leon, Castile, and Aragon were engaged in constant warfare with them. Roderigo Ruy Diaz, descended from one of the proudest families of Castile, called by the Arabs El Sayd (Lord), and afterwards the Cid Campeador, acquired undying fame in battling with the Moors, and in the siege of Valencia, which he took in 1094. Leon, Castile, the Asturias, Galicia, and the county of Portu-Cale (Portugal) were united under the enterprising monarchs Ferdinand I. and Alphonso VI. After a siege of three years, Toledo, the ancient capital of the Visigoths, surrendered, in 1085, to Alphonso; but when he pushed on towards the Guadiana, he was met in the plain of Zalaca, in 1087, by Yussef-Ben-Taxfin,—Al-nazar-ed-din (Defender of the Faith),—and totally defeated, with the loss of twenty-four thousand of his bravest warriors. Alphonso conferred the government of the country, from the Minho to the Tagus, and the right of conquering as far as the Guadiana, on the young hero Henry of Besançon, a Burgundian prince, who, in 1072, married his daughter Teresa, and to whose valor he had been indebted for many of his victories. Numbers of Burgundian nobles having joined the banner of Count Henry, he beat back the Moors, who, in 1107, made a desperate attack on Coimbra; and he laid the foundation of the chivalrous monarchy of Portugal before his death, in 1112.

The first crusade took place in the time of the Emperor Henry IV. From an early period in the history of the Church it was considered a pious act to make a pilgrimage to the Holy Sepulchre, and to visit the various places which the Saviour had consecrated by his presence. When Palestine was conquered by the Arabs, in the seventh century, that fierce but generous people respected the religious spirit of the pilgrims, and allowed them to build a church and a hospital in Jerusalem; but a fearful change took place after the subjugation of the country, in 1065, by brutal hordes of Seljuk Turks, who wreaked their cruelty on the Mussulmans of Syria as well as on the Christians. In 1073, the Greek Emperor, Manuel VII., sent to supplicate the assistance of the great Pope, Gregory VII., against the Turks, accompanying his petition with many expressions of profound respect for his holiness and

the Latin Church. Gregory, who beheld in the supplication of Manuel a grand opportunity for realizing the Catholic unity of Christendom, cordially responded; but circumstances prevented him from carrying into execution the vast designs which he entertained, and the idea of a crusade gradually died away. It was revived, however, by his successor, Urban II., an able and humane man, whose sympathies were kindled by the burning zeal of Peter the Hermit, a native of Amiens, in France, who had made a pilgrimage to the Holy Land, had witnessed the cruelties perpetrated by the Turks, and was now traversing Europe, preaching everywhere to crowds in the open air, and producing the most extraordinary enthusiasm by his impassioned descriptions of how pilgrims were murdered, robbed, or beaten, how shrines and holy places were desecrated, and how nothing but greed restrained the ruffian Turks (who made the Christians pay heavy taxes for their visits to Jerusalem) from destroying the Holy Sepulchre and extirpating every vestige of Christianity from the land.

As soon as the feelings of Europe had been sufficiently heated, Urban openly took up the question. Two councils were held in 1095. At the second, held in Clermont, in France, a crusade was definitely resolved upon. The Pope himself delivered a stirring address to a vast multitude of clergy and laymen, and as he proceeded the pent-up emotions of the crowd burst forth, and cries of *Deus vult!* “God wills it!” rose simultaneously from the whole audience. These words, *Deus vult*, by the injunction of Urban, were made the war-cry of the enterprise, and every one who embarked in it wore, as a badge, the sign of the cross; hence the name crusade—French, *croisade*, from the Latin *crux*, a cross.

The first crusade was undertaken simply to vindicate the *right* of Christian pilgrims to visit the Holy Sepulchre. From all parts of Europe thousands upon thousands hurried at the summons of the Pope to engage in the holy war. William of Malmesbury says, “The most distant islands and savage countries were inspired with this ardent passion. The Welshman left his hunting, the Scotchman his fellowship with vermin, the Dane his drinking-party, and the Norwegian his raw fish.” A disorderly multitude, the mere dregs and refuse of Christendom, to the number of two hundred and seventy-five thousand, started in the spring of 1096. The first army consisted of twenty thousand foot, and was commanded by a Burgundian gentleman, Walter the Penniless. It marched through Hungary, but was cut to pieces by the natives of Bulgaria, only a few, among whom was Walter himself, escaping to Constantinople. The second, consisting of forty thousand

men, women, and children, led by Peter the Hermit, reached Constantinople greatly reduced. A third, composed of fifteen thousand Germans, led by a priest named Gottschalk, was slaughtered or dispersed in Hungary, which also proved the grave of a fourth, a terrible horde, consisting of about two hundred thousand wretches from France, England, Flanders, and Lorraine, who had swept along through Germany, committing horrible ravages, especially against the Jews, whom they murdered without mercy.

Soon after, the real crusaders made their appearance,—the gentry, the yeomanry, and the serfs of feudal Europe, under chiefs of the first rank and renown. Six armies appeared, marching separately, and at considerable intervals of time. Their respective leaders were Godfrey of Bouillon, Duke of Lorraine; Hugh the Great, Count of Vermandois, and brother of Philip I., King of France; Robert Curthose, Duke of Normandy, son of William the Conqueror; Count Robert of Flanders; Bohemond, Prince of Tarentum, son of the famous Guiscard, under whom was Tancred, the favorite hero of all the historians of the crusade; and, lastly, Count Raymond of Toulouse. The place of rendezvous was Constantinople; the number that met there was not less than six hundred thousand. The first place captured was Nice, in June, 1097, then Edessa and Antioch, after a siege of seven months, in June, 1098. It was on a bright summer morning, 1099, that forty thousand crusaders, the remnant of that vast array which two years before had laid siege to Nice, obtained their first glimpse of Jerusalem. The emotion was intense, the scene sublime. On the 15th of July, after a siege of rather more than five weeks, the grand object of the expedition was realized. Eight days after the capture of the city, Godfrey of Bouillon was unanimously elected King of Jerusalem; but he refused to "wear a crown of gold where the Saviour of the world had worn a crown of thorns," and took only the title of "Defender of the Holy Sepulchre." For nearly fifty years Edessa, Antioch, and Jerusalem not only maintained themselves against the attacks of the Mohammedans of Egypt and Syria, but greatly increased in size, power, and wealth. At Jerusalem were founded the two famous orders of the Knights Hospitallers of St. John and the Knights Templar.

The Knights of St. John, or Hospitallers of St. John, afterwards called Knights of Rhodes, and finally Knights of Malta, were a celebrated order of military religious established at the commencement of the crusades to the Holy Land. As early as 1048, some merchants from Amalfi, in Naples, established a church at Jerusalem, and built a mon-

astery, which they dedicated to St. John the Baptist. It was the duty of the monks, who were called Brothers of St. John, or Hospitallers, to take care of the poor and sick, and, in general, to assist pilgrims. This order was regularly instituted in the beginning of the twelfth century as a military order by the principal, Raymond du Puy. These knights observed the rules of St. Augustine. Besides their vows of chastity, obedience, and poverty, it was their duty to aid in defending the Church against infidels. The order was divided into three classes,—knights, who should bear arms; chaplains, who were ecclesiastics; and servitors, whose duty it was to take care of the sick. This order long maintained itself against the Turks and Saracens by union and courage; but in 1191 it was driven from Palestine. Upon this the knights conquered Cyprus, but soon lost it again, and established themselves, in 1309, on the island of Rhodes, where they remained upwards of two hundred years. Driven thence by Sultan Solyman the Magnificent, the knights went to Candia, then to Venice, Rome, Viterbo, Nice, Villa Franca, and Syracuse, till the Emperor Charles V. gave them the islands of Malta, Gozzo, and Comino, on condition of perpetual war against the infidels and pirates, and the restoration of these islands to Naples, if the order should succeed in recovering Rhodes. From this time they were commonly called Knights of Malta. The chief of this order, which had great possessions in almost every part of Europe, was called "Grand Master of the Holy Hospital of St. John of Jerusalem, and Guardian of the Army of Jesus Christ." He was chosen by vote, and lived at La Valette, in the island of Malta. The spiritual power was exercised by the chapter, which consisted of eight *ballivi conventuali*, and in which the grand master presided. The principal offices in the order were held by the pillars of the eight languages into which the knights were divided according to their respective nations. The languages were those of Provence, Auvergne, France, Italy, Aragon, Germany, Castile, and England. From these languages the *ballivi conventuali* were chosen, and their lands were divided into *priories*, these into *baillages*, and these again into *commanderies*. Of the priories, the German had the preference, and was called the Grand Priory. The grand prior was a prince of the empire, and resided at Heitersheim, a city and castle of Brisgau, in Baden. The last grand prior, a count of Reichenbach-Fouxmaigne, lost all his possessions by the peace of Presburg, in West Suabia, which fell into the hands of the Grand Duke of Baden. Of the eight languages, the English became extinct in the sixteenth century; the three French languages perished during the revolution; those of Castile and Aragon were separated

from Malta at the peace of Amiens; and the Italian and German have since been abolished. In peace these knights wore a long black mantle, a gold cross of eight points enameled white; in war they wore a red jacket, or tabard, charged with a full white cross. Only in spiritual concerns was the order subject to the Pope; in all temporal ones it enjoyed unlimited sovereignty.

The Prussian order of Knights of St. John, founded by Frederic William III., and which is a royal order, can be considered only as a memorial of an order venerable for its antiquity and its services.

The order of the *Templars*, or Knights of the Temple, was the most celebrated and powerful of the religious military orders of Christendom. Its origin is ascribed to Hugues de Payens, Geoffroi de St. Omer, and seven other French knights, who, in 1118 or 1119, in addition to the three vows of chastity, poverty, and obedience, took a fourth, by which they bound themselves to defend the holy sepulchre of Christ, and to afford protection to the numerous pilgrims who then annually flocked to the Holy Land. The military character associated with the new order attracted immediate attention, and after its formal incorporation by Pope Honorius II., in 1128, at the instigation of St. Bernard, its numbers rapidly increased, members of the noblest families of Europe seeking admission into its ranks, and people of every degree vying with one another in endowing it with gifts of land or money. Honorius gave them a peculiar dress, consisting of a white mantle, to distinguish them from the Hospitallers, who were habited in black, and in 1146 they added a red cross on the left breast. This emblem was also borne on their banner, formed of striped black and white cloth, and called *beauséant*, a word rendered famous throughout Christendom as the battle-cry of their order. Soon after their establishment, Baldwin II., King of Jerusalem, gave them a part of his palace as a residence, to which the canons of the adjoining convent of the Temple added another building for keeping their arms, whence they were called Knights of the Temple. The province in which the grand master resided, and which, for upwards of one hundred and seventy-three years from the foundation, continued to be in Palestine, was always considered the chief seat of the order. In 1172, Pope Alexander III. allowed the order to receive spiritual members, so that among other important advantages conferred upon the Templars was that of having the offices of religion performed in their houses, even in countries under an interdict, whence in practice they became exempt from the effects of an interdict, a circumstance which added greatly to their influence and numbers. They became in time a formidable and wealthy military

community, whose members acknowledged no spiritual authority but the Pope, and held themselves amenable to him only in secular matters. Originally subsisting upon the alms of the charitable, and making a show of poverty, as illustrated by their seal, which represented two knights riding upon a single horse, they increased so rapidly in wealth as to become more interested in extending and guarding their possessions than in affording protection to pilgrims; and, notwithstanding their unquestioned prowess and daring, their frequent feuds with the rival order of the Hospitallers, and their open licentiousness and lust of gain, often injured rather than aided the cause to which they had devoted themselves. Hence they fought for themselves more than for the common cause of Christianity; aided or thwarted the plans of campaigns at their pleasure, and frequently stained their knightly name and fame by open treachery, as in the crusade under the Emperor Frederic II., the partial failure of which was attributed to the machinations of the Templars. After having their chief seat successively in Jerusalem, Antioch, Acre, and the Pilgrims' Castle, near Cesarea, they were compelled, at the final extinction of the Latin power in Palestine, in 1291, to remove to the island of Cyprus, which they had purchased from Richard I. of England for thirty-five thousand silver marks. Their extensive possessions in Europe drew upon them at length the suspicion and jealousy of princes, whose cupidity was also excited by their immense wealth in landed revenues and hoarded coin. Under the influence of these motives, and irritated by his inability to tax the order, Philip the Fair of France, in concert with Pope Clement V., determined upon its destruction. Accordingly, in 1306, Jacques De Molay, the Grand Master of the Templars, was enticed to Paris, on a pretext of consulting him with reference to a new crusade and other matters, and in October, 1307, all the members of the order in France, including De Molay himself, were taken into custody, and their houses and goods were everywhere seized. Many were executed on account of grave heresies imputed to them, and Clement issued a bull for the abolition of the Templars. Their movable property was, for the most part, appropriated by the sovereigns of the countries in which it was deposited; and although their landed possessions were nominally transferred to the Hospitallers, the crown as a general thing secured the disposition of them. The order ceased at once throughout Christendom, except in Portugal, where it merely assumed the name of the Chevaliers of Christ, which order still subsists. The last act of the drama was the execution at the stake of De Molay, Guy of Auvergne, and other high dignitaries of the order, of whom the first two died pro-

testing their innocence, having previously recanted the confessions extorted from them by hopes of absolution or by torture.

It has been said that the founders of the various religious communities were all remarkable men, and some of them were more,—they were wonderful men,—men of genius, of deep insight into human nature, of determined will, of large sympathies, of high aspirations,—poets who did not write poems, but acted them. St. Bruno may here be mentioned. He was born at Cologne, 1051, and studied at Rheims, where he so distinguished himself that Bishop Gervasius appointed him director of all the schools in his diocese. At length, troubled with the wickedness of the world, and anxious to escape from what seemed to him the general pollution, he took refuge with six pious friends in a desert place, near Chartreuse, in the diocese of Grenoble. Here, in 1086, he founded one of the most austere of all the monkish orders, called Carthusians. One of the rules was that the members of the order should keep silence six days of the week, and should see one another only on Sundays. Their dress was a white garment.

It is not clear that St. Augustine, that great father and teacher of the Church, ever contemplated the institution of a religious order; but Pope Leo III. and the Emperor Lothaire decreed that all the various denominations of the Christian clergy who had not entered the ranks of monachism—priests, canons, clerks, etc.—should be incorporated into one great community, and receive as their rule of discipline the regulations promulgated by St. Augustine.

The famous Abelard, the scholastic philosopher and theologian, and unquestionably the boldest thinker of those times, was born near Nantes, in France, A.D. 1079. He laid down the principle that nothing is to be believed but what has first been understood; while the Church held that we must believe in order to understand. He died in 1142.

Bishop Bernward of Hildesheim, who died in 1122, was a great promoter of the arts, and of filigree-work in particular. A silver cross and chalice, and a crucifix twenty inches high, covered with gold plates and ornamented with filigree, which he made, are still kept at Hildesheim.

STATE OF SOCIETY AT THE COMMENCEMENT OF THE REIGN OF THE SUABIAN EMPERORS.

And first let us go back to the Saracens, who conquered Spain, and granted complete toleration to the Christian Goths, and who, under the name of Moçarabians (mixed Arabians), lived in the midst of the Mussulmans.

Abdelrahman, a contemporary of Charlemagne, was, like him, the patron of letters; but, more enlightened than that prince, he pursued, even in the civilization of the Christians themselves, a more beneficent and permanent policy than that of the Frankish monarch. He sought to attach his Christian subjects to his empire by the prodigious superiority in arts, letters, sciences, and cultivation which then distinguished the Arabians. The study of the Arabic language was considered the best means of developing genius, and the colleges he founded were resorted to for study by all the learned of Europe. Gerbert, who filled the papal chair from A.D. 999 to 1003, under the name of Sylvester II., studied at Seville and Cordova.

CHIVALRY.

Chivalry assumed the character of a positive institution in the eleventh century; its heroes are described as endowed with the most brilliant qualities of all the nations with which they had come in contact,—with the fidelity of the Germans, the gallantry of the French, and the rich imagination of the Arabians.

To this last source, according to some authors, are we to look for the primary origin of the romance of chivalry. The Germans, although they respected women and admitted them to their counsels and their worship, had no great amount of tenderness for the sex. Gallantry was unknown to them, and their rugged manners could never have contributed to the development of the sentiment and heroism of chivalry. Not only did the Arab notions on the point of honor possess great influence over the system of chivalry, but their effect is felt even in our modern manners. To them we owe that spirit of vengeance which has been so religiously inculcated, and that fastidious sensibility to insults and affronts which has induced men to sacrifice not only their own lives, but those of their families, to wash out a stain upon their honor. Devotion to the female sex appears to be peculiar to those nations whose blood has felt the influence of a burning sun. They love with a passion and excess of which neither our ordinary life nor our romances present any idea. They regard the habitation of their wives as a sanctuary, and a reflection upon them as a blasphemy. The honor of a man is deposited in the hands of her whom he loves.

The period when chivalry took its rise is precisely that when the moral feelings of the Arabians attained their highest pitch of delicacy and refinement. Virtue was then the object of their enthusiasm; and the purity of the language and of the ideas of their authors excite our admiration.

TROUBADOURS.

The most beautiful period of the Middle Ages produced, in the South of Europe, the singers and poets called Troubadours. During this period chivalry rose and spread all over Europe, giving birth to poetry as diversified as the forms of chivalric character from which it sprang. Thus originated the productions of the Minnesingers in Germany, the lofty poetry of the North, the ballads of Spain, the songs of the Troubadours and Trouvères in France, and of the Minstrels in England.

The beautiful shores of Provence, Languedoc, Guienne, and Gascony escaped, in a great measure, the devastating wars of the rest of Europe. During this whole period courtesy and gallantry were nowhere so fully developed as in Provence; and we need not be surprised when we see the Emperor Frederic Barbarossa in Germany, and King Richard Cœur de Lion, inviting the Provençal knights to their courts, to receive instruction from their guests in the usages and ceremonies of chivalry.

The ceremonies admitting to knighthood were, first, placing the candidate in a bath, as if to express that in presenting himself for knighthood he presented himself washed from his sins; then he was clothed in a white tunic, signifying the purity of life he was to lead; afterwards he put on a crimson vest, in token of the blood he would be called upon to shed; and lastly, a complete suit of black armor, as an emblem of death, for which he must always be prepared. A belt, the symbol of chastity, was then girded on, and a pair of spurs, to denote his readiness to hasten where duty called him. While his sword was girded on, he was exhorted to be brave and loyal. The whole was concluded by a stroke on the shoulder with the blade of a sword by the knight who admitted him, intended as a memento, to fix strongly on his mind the solemn engagements into which he had entered.

Provence is the native land of the Courts of Love, and the royal court at Arles, its capital, was for nearly two centuries the theatre of the finest chivalry, and the centre of a romantic life. The assembly of knights and troubadours, of jongleurs, with their Moorish story-tellers and buffoons, of ladies acting as judges or parties in matters of courtesy, exhibits a glittering picture of a mirthful, soft, and luxurious life. The knight of Provence devoted himself to his lady-love in true poetic earnest, and made the dance and tilt-yard the great business of his life. Each baron, a sovereign in his own territory, invited the neighboring knights to his castle, to take part in tournaments and to

contend in song, at a time when the knights of Germany and Northern France were challenging one another to deadly combat.

There might be seen the joyous companies of ladies and knights under fragrant olive groves, upon the enameled meadows, sporting from one holiday to another. There the gallant knight broke his lance on the shield of his manly antagonist; there the princess sat in the circle of ladies, listening seriously to the songs of the knights contending in rhymes respecting the laws of love, and, at the close of the contest, pronouncing her sentence (*arrêt d'amour*).

Among the great who composed songs in the Provençal dialect were Frederic Barbarossa, Richard Cœur de Lion, Alphonso III. and Peter III. of Aragon, William, Duke of Aquitaine, Frederic III. of Sicily, the Dauphin of Auvergne, the Count de Foix, the Prince of Orange, and the Marquis of Montferrat, King of Thessalonica. Frederic Barbarossa, who spoke almost all the languages of his time, met Raymond Berenger II., Count of Provence, at Turin, in 1154, and bestowed on him the investiture of his fiefs. The Count was accompanied by a great number of the poets of his nation, almost all of whom were among the principal nobility of his court. They delighted Frederic by the richness of their imaginations and the harmony of their verses. Frederic repaid their attention by the following lines:

"A Frenchman I'll have for my cavalier,
And a Catalonian dame,
A Genoese for his honor clear,
And a court of Castilian fame;
The Provençal songs my ear to please,
And the dances of Trevisan,
I'll have the grace of the Aragonese,
And the pearl of Julian;
An Englishman's hands and face for me,
And a youth I'll have from Tuscany."

TROUVÈRES.

The subjects of Charlemagne were composed of two very different races: the Germans, who inhabited along and beyond the Rhine, and the Walloons, who called themselves Romans, and who alone of all the people of the south were under the dominion of the Franks. The name of *Waelchs*, or Walloons, which was given them by the Germans, was the same as that of *Galli*, or *Galaiai*, which they received from the Latins and Greeks, and of *Kaltai*, or Celts, the name which, according to Cæsar, they themselves acknowledged. It was from Normandy that the first writers and the first poets in the French language

sprang. The two first literary works of these Trouvères, which prove that the *langue d'oui* was beginning to be cultivated, are the "Book of the Britons," or "Brutus," a fabulous history of the kings of England, in 1155, and the "Romance of the Lion," written at the same period, both of them in Normandy, or at least by Normans. Then came "Le Rou des Normands," or the "Livre de Raoul," which gives a history of the establishment of that people in Normandy.

The "Romance of St. Gréal," written in verse by Christian de Troyes, in the twelfth century, is a mixture of Briton chivalry and sacred history. The cup out of which the Saviour drank, during his crucifixion, was called the *Saint Gréal*. They supposed it to have been carried into England, where it came into the possession of King Arthur, his nephew Gawain, and the Knights of the Round Table, Lancelot of the Lake, Galar, his son, Percival of Wales, and Broot, of whom the history of each is given.

THE MINNESINGERS.

The ancient German word *minne* was used originally to denote love and friendship. The German poets of the Middle Ages expressed by it particularly a pure, faithful, and generally happy love between the two sexes. The Minnesingers are also called *Suabian* poets. In the beginning of the twelfth century, when the art of poetry came from the South of France to Germany, it found a welcome at the court of the Suabian Emperors of Germany. The Minnesingers were knights, or at least men of noble descent, who lived and sang at the courts of princes who loved and protected the arts, such as the Emperor Frederic II., Duke Leopold of Austria, Wenceslaus, King of Bohemia, Duke Henry of Breslau, and others. Not a few princes took part in these songs. The "Heldenbuch"—Book of Heroes—was a celebrated collection of old German poems drawn from national traditions. Among the authors are Henry of Osterdingen and Wolfram of Eschenbach. These poems excite the imagination by their lively tales of war and of love. The earliest of the Minnesingers now known was Henry of Veldeke, who flourished about 1180. The Nibelungenlied, an ancient German epic poem, ranks among the noblest works of imagination. The name is derived from the Nibelungen, an ancient and powerful Burgundian tribe, the name of which, in all probability, was founded on the ancient mythical ideas of a Nebelland (land of mists) in the north. The subject of this great epic is the dreadful fate of this tribe, caused by the passion of two princely pairs. The one pair is Siegfried, son of King Sigismund of Santen, on the Rhine, and

Chriemhild, sister to Günther, King of Burgundy; the other is Günther and Brunhildis, a heroine of the fabulous North. The time in which we find the historical basis of this tragedy is about 430 or 440 A.D.; the scene is on the Rhine and the frontiers of Austria and Hungary. The poem of the Nibelungen, after having been apparently forgotten, appeared again to delight the lovers of true poetry and of German antiquities. The Nibelungen seems to have undergone several remodelings at different periods. As the poet who gave it its present shape has not disclosed his name, and as no information exists respecting him, conjectures have been divided as to who he was. From the author's geographical knowledge being most accurate in regard to the southeastern part of Germany, and from his decided predilection for Hungary and his dislike towards Bavaria, as well as from his flattery of the house of Babenberg, A. W. Schlegel is inclined to believe that Klingsohr of Hungary or Henry of Osterdingen—both of whom were present at the court of the Landgrave Hermann at Wartburg in 1207—was the author.

"The War of the Wartburg," one of the earliest German dramatic poems, grew out of the poetical contest in which six of the most distinguished Minnesingers assembled under the protection of the Landgrave were engaged. They were Henry the Clerk (Henry von Rispach), Walter von der Vogelweide, Wolfram von Eschenbach, Bitterolf, Henry von Osterdingen, and Reimer von Zwetzen.

The castle of Wartburg was the ancient residence of the Landgraves of Thuringia. Here lived Hermann's son, Prince Louis, who married Elizabeth, daughter of Andreas II., King of Hungary,—the celebrated St. Elizabeth, the type of female charity. She, in the absence of her husband, daily visited the poor in the suburbs of Eisenach. One day, during a severe winter, she left the castle with a single attendant, carrying in her robes a supply of bread, meat, and eggs for a certain poor family. Meeting her husband returning from the chase, "What dost thou here, my Elizabeth?" he said; "let us see what thou art carrying away?" Confused, and blushing to be so discovered, she pressed the mantle to her bosom; but he insisted, and, opening her robe, beheld only red and white roses, more beautiful and fragrant than any that grow on this earth, and it was now the depth of winter.

This castle was also the place where Frederic the Wise of Saxony caused Luther to be carried, and where the Reformer lived from 1521 to 1522, under the name of "Junker Georg," and translated the Scriptures. The chamber which he inhabited is still pointed out. His bedstead and chair have been carried away in chips by visitors as relics; but his

table has been preserved by a strong iron band. The wall shows the mark of the inkstand which he threw at the head of the Evil One, who attacked him in his solitary hours. The windows of this room command a beautiful view.

PAINTING.

On the conquest of Constantinople by the Latins, in 1204, the Byzantine school of painting was broken up, and many Greek artists went to Italy. The first Italian artist whose name is mentioned is Guido of Siena; a large Madonna, inscribed with his name, dated 1221, is still preserved in that city. Giovanni Cimabue, who lived from 1240 to 1300, is commonly styled the founder of the Italian school; but this art received its chief impetus from his pupil Giotto, the shepherd-boy, the son of Pordone.

HOHENSTAUFEN OR SUABIAN EMPERORS.

	A.D.
CONRAD III., on the mother's side, grandson of Henry IV.	1138-1152
FREDERIC I., BARBAROSSA, nephew of Conrad III.	1152-1190
HENRY VI., son of Frederic Barbarossa	1190-1197
PHILIP of Suabia, son of Frederic Barbarossa	1197-1208
OTHO IV. of Brunswick, son of Henry the Lion of Saxony and Matilda, sister of Richard Cœur de Lion	1197-1215
FREDERIC II., son of Henry VI.	1215-1250

SUABIAN EMPERORS.

HOHENSTAUFEN.

"Das sind die Sprösslinge des herrscher Stamms,
Des geistesmächt'gen, dem kein anderer gleicht,
In dem die Trefflichkeit nie ausgeblüht
Und grosse Väter grosse Söhne zeugen."
UHLAND.

(They were the offspring of a lordly race, of intellect surpassing, in whom excellence never died out, and great fathers begat great sons.)

CONRAD III., KONRAD DER DRITTE. A.D. 1138-1152.

"Pauca cum aliis, multa tecum loquere." (Speak little with others, much with thyself.)

THE family of Hohenstaufen took its name from the high conical mountain—*der hohe Staufen*—in the valley of the Rems, four miles north-east of the town of Goeppingen, in Suabia. There the ancestor of the family, Frederic of Büren, had built a strong castle, the cradle of his chivalrous race. A loyal adherent to Henry IV. in the days of adversity, he was rewarded by that unhappy monarch with the hand of his daughter Agnes, and the duchy of Suabia as dower. His sons were Frederic, Duke of Suabia, and Conrad, who, while under twenty years of age, bravely supported his uncle, the Emperor Henry V., against his enemies, and in return that monarch invested him with the duchy of Franconia.

On the death of the Emperor, Lothair the Guelph, Henry the Proud of Bavaria and Saxony, heir of the patrimony of his father-in-law, the Emperor Lothair, and possessor of the crown jewels, stood boldly forward as a candidate for the imperial dignity. But the German princes, dreading so powerful and haughty a master, elected the Hohenstaufen Conrad, Duke of Franconia, in Frankfort, on February 22, 1138. Henry of Bavaria and Saxony dying, and his son Henry (the Lion) being still a child, the contest seemed at an end. But when Conrad III. declared the Guelphic fiefs escheated to the crown, and gave the duchy of Bavaria to his half-brother, Leopold of Austria, and the duchy of Saxony to Count Albert the Bear, of Ascania, the whole

Saxon people rose in defense of their young prince; and Count Guelph of Altorf, the brother of Henry the Proud, throwing down the gauntlet on the part of his injured nephew, began the desolating war.



CONRAD III.

defense of Count Guelph, with his knights and citizens, Conrad had resolved to destroy Weinsberg with fire and sword. He suspended, however, the last assault, and permitted the Weinsberg women previously to retire, and to carry with them their *dearest jewels*. How great was the astonishment of the Emperor and his army when, at dawn of day, they beheld in long rows the Countess and her fair companions, instead of carrying off their jewels and trinkets, staggering

* The Hohenstaufens obtained this name from a strong fortress, *Waiblingen*, now the small town of that name, on the Lower Rems, a few miles west of their castle of Staufen.

along beneath the weight of their husbands or dearest relatives! This affecting scene moved Conrad to tears, and when his brother, Frederic of Suabia, galloping up, upbraided him for his weakness and denounced the treachery, Conrad spoke those noble words which have been preserved for ages, "*A royal word must not be twisted, nor ungenerously interpreted.*" He dismounted, and, embracing the Count and Countess, the tragical scene terminated in the romantic spirit of the age; and the loyal old city of Weinsberg is still proud of the name of *Weibertreu*,—woman's faith,—which honors its towering fortress.

Soon after this, Leopold of Austria died, and Bavaria again reverted to the empire. In 1142, Conrad convoked a diet of the empire at Frankfort, for the magnificent celebration of the nuptials of his half-brother, Henry of Austria,* with Gertrude, the young widow of Henry the Proud, whose son, Henry the Lion, renounced Bavaria in favor of his step-father, and in return received Saxony.

In 1144, news reached Europe that Edessa had been conquered by the Emir of Mosul, and the Christians slaughtered. His son Noureddin was advancing to destroy the Latin kingdoms of Syria and Palestine. Europe once more trembled with excitement. A second crusade was preached by the famous St. Bernard, Abbot of Clairvaux, whose ascetic life, solitary studies, and stirring eloquence made him, during his life, the oracle of Europe. Luther said of him, "If there ever lived on the earth a God-fearing and holy monk, it was St. Bernard of Clairvaux." Others have called him the "Last of the Fathers." St. Bernard, after preaching the crusade in France, hastened into Germany. He could not speak German; but the people were moved by the pathetic vehemence of his tones and gestures, and the Emperor was induced to join with Louis VII. in a new crusade, and declared this intention at the Diet of Speyer, in 1146. After having caused his son Henry to be elected, at Frankfort, as his successor, in 1147, he set out with about two hundred thousand followers on his expedition to the East. Women, too, caught the enthusiasm of the times, and in Conrad's army there was a company of them, armed, riding like men, and led by a woman, who, from her gilded spurs and rich buskins, was called *golden-footed*. The part of the golden-footed dame in the French host was performed by no less a personage than Queen Eleanor herself. She was attended by a large band of the youth of both sexes, and a

* The Emperor's mother, Agnes, daughter of the Emperor Henry IV., married, after her first husband's death, St. Leopold of Austria; they had eighteen children, eleven of whom survived them.

chosen band of the gayest and most noble young men styled themselves "Queen Eleanor's Guard."

Conrad was the first to set out, and, after a series of disasters and defeats, in which the greater part of his army lost their lives, the Emperor reached Antioch; from thence he made a pilgrimage to Jerusalem, and then returned to Europe. Louis met with no better success. The Saracens were far superior in skill to the Christians, and their equals in courage, and the invaders were cut in pieces in the defiles of the Pisidian mountains.

Conrad had no sooner returned to Germany than he had to quell new rebellions, and he died a few years afterwards, poisoned, it is said, by Roger, King of Sicily, who had many good reasons to fear him. His tomb is in the cathedral of Bamberg, near that of Henry II.

His wife was Gertrude, daughter of a Count of Sulzbach. Their son Henry died before his father.

It is said that Conrad III. was the first German Emperor who, following the example of the Byzantine Emperors, adopted the double-headed eagle as the arms of the German Empire. Former Emperors had only one, or sometimes two single eagles.

"Warum in jeder Schilderey
Der deutsche Adler doppelkopfig sei?
O lasst doch einmal nach, mit Forschen Euch zu plägen,
Ein Novellist kann Euch die Wahrheit sagen:
Der ein Kopf, der südwärts blickt,
Sanft scheint und desto schärfer pickt,
Ist Kaiser Josephs Kopf, des toleranten Weisen;
Der andre Kopf, der nordwärts schaut,
Scharf sieht und mit den Schnabel haut,
Ist Friederich, der Donnergott der Preussen.
Warum sie aber uneins sind,
Begreift beinah' ein kleines Kind:
Sie sind entzweit in dem gemeinen Falle,
Was eine Kralle packt, packt auch die andre Kralle.
Drum zerren sie so jämmerlich!
O Vaterland, du dauerst mich!"

Why should the German eagle double-headed be
Which in this picture here you see?
O cease to try to learn the reason why,
For you the truth a novelist will tell,
And that will satisfy you just as well.
The head turned towards the south
And looks so gentle, only sharper cuts,
That's Kaiser Joseph, the tolerant, the wise man.
The other, with strong beak, scanning the north,
Is Frederic, the Thunder-God of the Prussians.

The reason why they disagree is plain,—
So plain, a simple child can understand;
They are divided by the way they stand,—
So what this claw seizes, seizes too the other;
And so they war, and pull, and tear each other,
And Germany is rent so miserably,
O Fatherland! I pity thee!

FREDERIC I. BARBAROSSA, FRIEDRICH DER ROTHBART.

A.D. 1152-1190.

"Præstat uni probo, quam mille improbis placere." (Better to please one honest man than a thousand dishonest.)

CONRAD III. died at Bamberg, in 1152, recommending, as his oldest son Henry had died, and his younger son Frederic was still a child, his nephew Frederic, son of his brother Frederic of Suabia, for Emperor. Barbarossa had succeeded his father in the duchy of Suabia in 1147. His mother, Judith, was a Guelph, a sister of Henry the Proud, and the Guelphs looked for favor at his hands; while Frederic himself counted on their support to help him carry out his plans in Italy. He therefore invested Guelph III., brother of Henry the Proud, with Tuscany, Spoleto, and Sardinia, and urged Henry Jasomirgott to resign Bavaria to Henry the Lion. Henry Jasomirgott was unwilling to do this, and Frederic, being occupied with preparations for his Italian campaign, let the matter



FREDERIC BARBEROUSSE.

rest, and set off for Rome that same year, accompanied by Henry the Lion and Otho VI. von Wittelsbach.

It was at this time that Arnold of Brescia,* who was educated in France under Abelard, after adopting the monastic life and distinguishing himself by the success with which he contended against the corruptions of the clergy, had been cited before the second Lateran Council, and banished from Italy; he then took refuge in France, where he was persecuted by St. Bernard, and was forced to retreat to Zurich. Meantime his doctrines exerted a powerful influence in Rome, which ended in a general insurrection against the government; whereupon Arnold repaired thither, and endeavored to direct the movement, hoping to establish a government similar to that of the ancient Roman Republic. But the people, provoked by the treachery and opposition of the papal party, and disunited among themselves, gave way to the grossest excesses. The city continued for ten years in a state of agitation and disorder. Pope Lucius II. was killed in an insurrection in 1145, and Eugenius III., to escape a similar fate, fled into France. These factions were subdued by Pope Adrian IV.,† who, feeling the weakness of his temporal authority, turned to the spiritual, and laid the city under excommunication, and Arnold was forced to take refuge with influential friends in Campania. On the arrival of the Emperor Frederic for his coronation, in 1155, Arnold was arrested and brought to Rome, tried, hanged, his body burned, and the ashes thrown into the Tiber.

Pope Adrian was at first on friendly terms with the Emperor, but his high notions of the papal supremacy, which he carried as far as even Gregory VII. had done, led to the beginning of that long contest of the Popes against the House of Hohenstaufen, which ended in the destruction of the dynasty.

In this first visit to Rome, Henry the Lion saved the Emperor's life in an attack of the Romans; and Otho von Wittelsbach defended him on his return through the narrow defile of Verona. For this Otho soon after was rewarded with the fief of the Bavarian Palatinate, which had become vacant by the death of his father, in 1155; Henry the Lion was invested with the duchy of Bavaria, on condition of separating the margraviate of Brandenburg from Saxony; the Ostmark, with three Bavarian counties from Bavaria, was erected into an independent

* Brescia, a city of Lombardy.

† Adrian IV. was by birth an Englishman, the only one of that nation that ever sat in the papal chair. His name was Nicholas Breakspeare. It was in his time that the doctrine of transubstantiation, advanced by Petrus Lombardus, was established.

duchy for Henry Jasomirgott; while Albert the Bear received Brandenburg in exchange for Saxony.

Henry the Lion was now at the height of his power, and his possessions extended from the Baltic and the North Sea to the Adriatic. In 1166 he had a quarrel with the Emperor's uncle, Bishop Otto of Freising, who had laid a tax on the salt which was carried from Reichenhall over the Iser-bridge at Oberföhring, where the toll was collected. The bishop being unwilling to give up this right, Henry, in 1157, built another bridge over the Iser, not far from Föhring, and where at that time stood a few scattered houses, called Munich. After building good roads to lead into Munich, he ordered the bishop's bridge to be demolished, one night, and thus they were obliged to carry the salt through Munich. He then built a depot for salt, a mint for coining, and began to lay the foundations for a city, which soon became very prosperous. The bishop complained of these proceedings to the Emperor, who decided that Munich should retain its privileges, but that Henry should pay one-third of the toll to the bishop. About two years afterwards, Henry separated from his wife and married Matilda, daughter of Henry II. of England.

Frederic Barbarossa was one of the most enlightened and powerful rulers that ever swayed the imperial sceptre. In his desire to raise the secular power of the empire, in opposition to the arrogated supremacy of the papal chair, he was brought into constant collision with his Italian subjects. Six times he was obliged to cross the Alps at the head of a large army, to chastise the refractory cities of Lombardy. The difficulty of settling the Italian troubles was aggravated by the occupants of the papal chair. At another time there were distractions caused by the rival Popes Alexander III. and Victor IV., who excommunicated each other, and hurled the anathemas of the Church against their several opponents.

The Emperor was soon engaged in disputes with the Pope, who began hostilities shortly after the imperial diet at Besançon, where Otto von Wittelsbach threatened the Pope's legate with the sword. Four jurists agreed in declaring that the Emperor was legally possessed of universal sovereignty, and Frederic began the exercise of it by attempting to annul the election of Alexander III. Alexander replied by a bull of excommunication, and by calling the Guelphs of Lombardy, William II. of Sicily, and all Christian princes to his defense. Barbarossa advanced at the head of his army, burning the harvests, laying waste the fields, and massacring the prisoners that fell into his hands. After a long siege, in which the citizens displayed the greatest firmness and

devotion, he took Milan, threw down the walls, and passed the plow-share over its smoking ruins.

For a moment the Lombards were terror-stricken and submitted to the Emperor. But, exasperated by the cruelties of the imperial governors (*podestà*), they found courage in indignation, and formed a league for the enfranchisement of Italy. The Pope declared for the *league of Lombardy*. Venice sided with the Guelphs (anti-imperialists), because Genoa, her rival, had declared for the Ghibellines; and the Pope, in reward, granted her the sovereignty of the Adriatic. The inhabitants of Milan, who had been dispersed through the neighboring towns, collected together and rebuilt their city. Then all joined again and built another city, as a check upon the Ghibelline Pavia, Alessandria *della Paglia*, the straw-thatched Alessandria.

The cities of the Lombard League were Milan, Bergamo, Brescia, Mantua, Ferrara, Bologna, Parma, Piacenza, Modena, Venice, Vicenza, Padua, and Treviso. Florence and Tuscany always took part with the Church.

The Ghibelline cities were Pavia, the ancient capital of Lombardy, Genoa, Como, Lodi, Cremona, Vercelli, Novara, and Pisa. The principalities in favor of the Emperor were Montferrat, Malaspina, and the county of Savoy.

Five years after the demolition of Milan, the Lombards could bear their humiliation no longer; they rose in their might, and on the plain of Legnano, northwest of Milan, the decisive battle of Italian liberty was fought, May 29, 1176. It was here that Henry the Lion left the Emperor, notwithstanding his entreaties, and the consequence was the defeat of Frederic. The brilliant squadrons of the Milanese youths spurred against the German chivalry with such irresistible fury that the whole hostile army was routed with tremendous slaughter. Old Barbarossa, falling beneath his wounded steed, lay hidden among the slain, and was with difficulty brought away by his faithful squires, during the darkness of the night. While the Italians were reveling after their victory, the vanquished Emperor, disguised as a shepherd, passed their lines, and, through by-paths, succeeded in gaining Pavia, where his Empress, Beatrice of Burgundy, and the court were mourning his death.

Frederic and the Pope met after this at Venice, and the imperial crown was again humbled before the tiara.* The Emperor consented

* The ancient tiara was a round, raised cap, having a crown at the bottom. It was a symbol of power among the Medes and Persians. Pope Boniface VII. added a second crown to his, A.D. 974, and Benedict XII. added the third, in 1334.

to acknowledge Urban II., the successor of Alexander III., as the rightful Pope, and then returned to Germany. By his energetic measures he succeeded in thoroughly humbling his troublesome vassal, Henry the Lion, and thus crushed the Guelphic power in Germany. He summoned Henry to appear before three diets, but, refusing to obey, he was put under the ban of the empire, in 1180. The duchies of Bavaria and Saxony were made smaller by some of their lands being given to bishops, and some being held by the empire. Frederic then gave Bavaria to Otto von Wittelsbach, and Saxony to Bernhard of Anhalt, son of Albert the Bear. The Archbishop of Cologne, the Bishops of Halberstadt and Münster, and many secular barons, divided Westphalia among themselves. The Archbishop of Bremen took possession of the mouth of the Elbe. The Counts of Oldenburg and Holstein ranged themselves under the empire, and Lubec, now an important city, after throwing off her allegiance to Denmark, hoped to become an imperial free city. The duchy of Lüneberg and Brunswick (the ancient Ostphalia) was the only part of the large duchy of Saxony which remained in possession of the Guelph family of Henry the Lion after his disgrace in 1180. Glorious old Saxony was no more!

Henry then left Germany for three years, and went to England, to his father-in-law, Henry II., where was born his third son, William, whose descendants occupied the thrones of England, Brunswick, and Hanover.* In 1184, he returned to Germany; but Frederic, suspicious of the proud and high-minded Henry, gave him his choice to go to England for three years, or to follow him to Palestine. He preferred the first; but, as the promise to leave his hereditary possessions undisturbed was violated, he went back, in 1189, and conquered many cities. A reconciliation between the contending parties was at last effected. Henry's eldest son had married Agnes, the niece of Frederic Barbarossa, and this connection of the mightiest Guelph with the greatest Ghibelline seemed to be the signal for a termination of the old quarrel. Henry died in peace at Brunswick, in 1195, aged sixty-six. His tomb is still to be seen there. He was noble-minded, brave, and indefatigable, but stubborn, proud, and passionate. Though constantly engaged in a struggle with the clergy, he was pious. He was much in advance of his age in fostering industry, science, commerce, and the arts.

Frederic Barbarossa, in the early part of his reign, visited the defections of his vassals with undue severity; but as he grew older his

* Brunswick and Hanover have passed from their hands into the power of Prussia.

conduct towards them was characterized by a generous leniency and a politic liberality in advance of his time. In the council he convoked at Constance, in 1183, he left the Lombard cities the right to choose their own municipal rulers, and to conclude treaties and leagues among themselves, although he retained his supremacy over them, together with the power of imposing certain fixed taxes. He made Poland tributary to the empire, raised Bohemia to the rank of a kingdom, and the margravate of Austria into an independent hereditary duchy.

Attention was again turned to the East. Saladin, a young Kurdish chief, had made himself Sultan of Egypt, had invaded Palestine, had taken town after town, and, finally, in October, 1187, had compelled Jerusalem to capitulate, after a siege of fourteen days. This news led to a third crusade, the chiefs of which were Frederic Barbarossa, Philip Augustus, King of France, and Richard Cœur de Lion, King of England.

In 1189, Frederic, having settled the affairs of the empire and proclaimed universal peace in his dominions, resigned his government to his eldest son, Henry, and, at the head of one hundred thousand men, set forth for the Holy Land, accompanied by his second son, Frederic of Suabia, the founder of the order of the Teutonic Knights; Conrad of Montferrat, who fell beneath the vengeance of the Old Man of the Mountain, Chief of the Assassins in Palestine; Leopold of Austria; and Count Amadeus of Savoy. After gaining two great victories over the Saracens, at Philomelium and Iconium, Frederic was drowned, in 1190, in a river of Syria, while trying to urge his horse across the stream. His remains were recovered by his son, and buried at Tyre. The death of Frederic excited the deepest grief in Germany, where his memory has always been cherished as that of the best and wisest of his race. He was a patron of learning, and enacted many admirable laws, some of which are still in force.

His first wife was Adelaide of Vohburg, whom he divorced. His second was Beatrice of Burgundy, the mother of Henry VI. and Philip.

Frederic's army, much reduced, joined the forces of the other two monarchs before Acre, which important city was immediately besieged. In vain did Saladin attempt to relieve the defenders; and, after a beleaguerment of twenty-three months, the city surrendered. But the Crusaders were not united among themselves. Philip Augustus soon after returned to France, and Richard, after accomplishing prodigies of valor, which excited the admiration of the Saracens, concluded a treaty with Saladin, by which "the people of the West were to be at liberty to make pilgrimages to Jerusalem exempt from the taxes which

the Saracen princes had in former times imposed." And this was all that had been claimed by the first Crusaders. In October, 1192, Richard set sail for Europe.

A national tradition of Germany says that Frederic Barbarossa is not dead, but sits in the subterranean hall of Mount Kyffhausen, not far from Halle, plunged in magic sleep, and that in time he will awake and reappear to bring back the honor and glory of the German nation.

Der alte Barbarossa,
Der Kaiser Friederich,
Im unterird'schen Schlosse
Hält er verzaubert sich.

Er ist niemals gestorben,
Er lebt darin noch jetzt;
Er hat, im Schloss verborgen,
Zum Schlaf sich hingesetzt.

Er hat hinabgenommen
Des Reichen Herrlichkeit,
Und wird einst widerkommen
Mit ihr zu seiner Zeit.

Der Stuhl ist Elfenbeinern
Worauf der Kaiser sitzt,
Der Tisch ist Marmelsteiner
Worauf sein Haupt er stützt.

Sein Bart ist nicht von Flachse,
Er ist wie Feuersgluth,—
Ist durch den Tisch gewachsen
Worauf sein Kinn ausruht.

Er nickt, als wie in Traume,
Sein Aug, halb offen, zwinkt;
Und je nach langem Raume
Er einem Knaben winkt.

Er spricht im Schlaf zum Knaben :
Geh hin vor's Schloss, O Zwerg,
Und sieh ob noch die Raben
Herfliegen um den Berg.

Und wenn die alten Raben
Noch fliegen immerdar,
So muss ich auch noch schlafen
Benzaubert hundert Jahr.*

The old Barbarossa,
The Emperor Frederic,
In a subterranean castle
Is held enchanted.

He did not ever die,
He lives there even now;
He has, in the seclusion of the castle,
Sat himself down to sleep.

He has taken down
The glory of the kingdom,
And will at a future time return
With it, when it shall be his time.

The chair is ivory
Upon which the Emperor sits,
The table is marble
Upon which he rests his head.

His beard it is not flaxen,
It is like the glow of fire,—
It has grown through the table
Whereon he leans his chin.

He nods, as in a dream,
His eye, half open, droops;
And ever after a long time
He winks to a boy.

He speaks in sleep to the boy :
Go hence before the castle, O dwarf,
And see whether the ravens
Are still flying around the mountain.

And if the old ravens
Are still flying there,
Then must I sleep
Enchanted another hundred years.

* Rückert.

Frederic Barbarossa bestowed many favors on the city of Frankfort, to which he was partial; but his usual residence was his paternal castle of Staufen, which saw, in its good old times, all the pomp and splendor of that grand old race. Its situation commands one of the most magnificent views in all Germany. The mountain on which the castle stood rises in the form of a pyramid, above the chain of hills which extends between the rivers Fils and Rems. The castle was burned by the insurgents in the Peasants' War, 1525, and the stones were afterwards employed in the construction of the castle at Goeppingen. The little village of Hohenstaufen lies at the foot of the mountain, and part way up the slope stands the little church, sole relic of the Imperial House of Hohenstaufen. This church has been partially restored; the exterior is adorned with the imperial eagle, surrounded by the names of the members of this illustrious family. Above are the armorial bearings of the seven ancient electorates of Germany; beneath, those of the former kingdom of Jerusalem; then those of the other countries—part of France, Holland, Denmark, Poland, part of Italy, etc.—over which the Emperors held supremacy. Over a door, on the north side, which is now walled up, is an old fresco of Frederic Barbarossa, with the inscription recording that the Emperor, "amor bonorum, terror malorum,"—friend of the good and terror of the bad,—was in the habit of entering the church by this door.

The tradition prophesying his return has been celebrated in paintings and in song. The poet Geibel describes his return in the following lines :

Alles schweigt, nur hin und wieder
Fällt ein Tropfen vom Gestein,
Bis der grosse Morgen endlich
Bricht mit Feuersgluth herein.

Bis der Adler stolzen Fluges
Um des Berges Gipfel zieht,
Dass vor seines Fittigs Rauschen
Dort der Rabenschwarm entflieht.

Aber dann, wie ferner Donner
Rollt es durch den Berg herauf,
Und der Kaiser greift zum Schwerte
Und die Ritter wachen auf.

Laut in seinen Angeln tönen
Springet auf das ehre Thor:
Barbarosa mit den Seinen
Steigt im Waffenschmuck empor.

All is silent, save now and then
Falls a drop from the stone,
Till finally the great morning
Breaks in with the glow of fire.

Till the eagle's proud flight
Circles round the mountain's top,
That before the whirring of his pinions
The swarm of ravens fly away.

But then, like distant thunder,
It rolls up through the mountain,
And the Emperor seizes his sword
And the knights awake.

Loud on its hinges sounding
Springs open the iron gate:
Barbarosa with his warriors
Comes forth in full armor.

Auf dem Helm trägt er die Krone,
Und den Sieg an seiner Hand,
Schwerter blitzten, Harfen klingen,
Wo er schreitet durch das Land.

Und dem alten Kaiser beugen
Sich die Völker allzugleich,
Und auf's Neu zu Aachen gründet
Er das heil'ge deutsche Reich.

Barbarossa awoke July 15, 1870, and the new empire was founded
January 18, 1871.

HENRY VI., HEINRICH DER SECHSTE. A.D. 1190-1197.

"Qui tacendi non habet artem, nec loquendi novit opportunitatem." (He who knows not when to be silent, knows not when to speak.)

HENRY, eldest son of Frederic Barbarossa, was crowned at Rome in 1191. His talents nearly equaled those of his father, but his disposition was less noble. He thought less of the rights of others than of his own interests, and all his attention was turned towards making the German crown hereditary in his family. In order to raise an army, he detained Richard Cœur de Lion a prisoner until he was paid the heavy ransom of one hundred thousand marks of silver.

In the contest between the Pope and his father, the Normans had remained attached to the papal party ever since Innocent II. had conferred upon Roger II. the title of King of the Two Sicilies. The new kingdom was to take a very different part under the dynasty which succeeded to the Normans. Frederic Barbarossa had prepared for this change by marrying his son Henry to Roger's daughter, in 1186. Shortly after, he died in the crusade, and Henry claimed the inheritance of Roger. The Pope, of whom the Norman fiefs of Italy were held, unwilling to leave this rich and beautiful country in the hands of strangers, conferred the investiture upon Tancred, a natural son of the last king.

Henry, having procured a fleet from Genoa and Pisa, and already furnished with his army, marched into Italy, conquered Apulia, Calabria, Naples, and Sicily, crushing entirely the national party, and revenged himself upon the leader of the Sicilian army by having him tied upon a throne of red-hot iron and crowned with a crown of burning copper. Italy trembled at his cruelty.

* Aachen, the German name of Aix-la-Chapelle.

SUABIAN EMPERORS.



HENRI VI.

Henry died suddenly at Messina, scarcely thirty-two years of age. But he had taken care to have his son Frederic, although only two years old, acknowledged as his successor. Henry was buried in the cathedral of Palermo.

His wife was Constance, daughter of Roger II., King of Sicily.

The cathedral of Palermo contains the tombs of its kings,—King Roger, his son-in-law Henry, his daughter Constance, and his illustrious grandson, Frederic II. The sarcophagus of the latter, supported by four lions, is the finest. On the walls above these monuments are recorded the privileges granted to the city by Frederic II., inlaid in marble. In 1781 the sarcophagi were removed from their original place in a side chapel to the aisle on the right of the

south portal and opened. The remains of Henry VI. and Constance were greatly decomposed, whilst those of Frederic II. were in a good state of preservation. The corpse of the great Emperor was enveloped in sumptuous robes with Arabian inscriptions; beside him lay the crown and imperial apple, and at his side lay his sword. The sacristy contains the crowns and the remains of the robes.

PHILIP OF SUABIA.

PHILIP OF SUABIA, PHILIPP VON SCHWABEN. A.D. 1197-1208.

"Quod male coeptum est, ne pudeat mutasse." (Be not ashamed to change what is badly begun.)

Philip of Suabia, brother of Henry VI., attempted to preserve the crown for his nephew Frederic until he should be of age; but the adherents of his house caused him to be elected and crowned at Mayence, and afterwards at Aix-la-Chapelle. Shortly after, he was engaged in a war with his rival, Otho of Brunswick, elected by the Guelph party. Philip at first was not successful; but after many devastating campaigns, sieges, and battles, he was victorious in a combat near Cologne, in 1206.

The sovereignty of the Church, for which Gregory VII. labored and died, was at last attained by Innocent III. This young and ambitious Pope, elected in 1198, renewed all the arrogant pretensions of the Roman See to the donations of Constantine, Pepin, and Charlemagne. The circumstances of the times were favorable during the minority of Frederic II. The duchy of Spoleto, the march of Ancona, and the greater part of Romagna, as allodial possessions of the Countess Matilda, were occupied by the Pope, who, not being strong enough to keep such extensive territories under the keys of St. Peter, granted them as fiefs to the Marquis of Est. Thus the temporal sovereignty of the Bishop of Rome



PHILIPPE DE SOUABE.

at last extended over the greater part of Central Italy, entirely independent of the German Empire.

It was this march of Ancona, a stronghold of the Guelphs, and the city of Ancona, a dangerous rival of Venice, which were blockaded in 1174 by the Venetian fleet, and at the same time closely besieged by the imperial army of Frederic Barbarossa, commanded by the jolly Archibishop Christian of Mayence; but the citizens defended themselves with heroic fortitude, and, on the approach of the army of the Lombard League, the bragging prelate raised the siege and made a speedy retreat.

This Archbishop of Mayence is an interesting specimen of a prelate of the twelfth century. His holiness read the mass with great dignity; he spoke eloquently the German, French, Dutch, Greek, Lombard, and Chaldaic languages. He mounted his war-steed like the boldest knight; wore a purple garment over his mail-armor, a golden helmet on his head, and brandished in his hand a heavy battle-mace with iron spikes. He had slain nine enemies in battle, and, as a severe judge, had himself knocked out the teeth of numerous malefactors in the tribunal. The ecclesiastics and women of his camp were so well drilled in sieges that they had stormed and taken almost impregnable castles; nay, it was even said that fair ladies and fleet horses were more expensive to the jolly archbishop than the whole imperial court was to Frederic Barbarossa.

Innocent III., who was made Pope at the age of thirty-seven, in the vigor of manhood, endowed by nature with all the talents of a ruler, possessed of an erudition uncommon at that time, and favored by circumstances, was better qualified than any of his predecessors to elevate the papal power, which he considered the source of all secular power, and was therefore anxious to govern all Christendom. No sooner was the Emperor Henry VI. dead than he favored the election of Otho against Philip; and when he found that Philip was likely to keep the crown, he excommunicated him. A great confusion in the affairs of Germany was the consequence. At length the anathema was removed, and Philip was enabled to turn his attention to affairs of state. He was a capable ruler, and carried out the plans of his father, confirming Bohemia in its rights as a kingdom, and Austria as an archduchy. Frederic Barbarossa separated the archduchy of Austria from Bavaria in 1154, and strengthened and endowed it with privileges, in order to enable the dukes to make efficient defense against the Hungarians on the frontier. In the act of donation, he wrote, in the original statute, that the new Duke of Austria should rank with the ancient

Archiducibus, and from this expression originated the subsequent title of *Archduke* of Austria. Somewhat later, Austria comprised the duchies of Styria, Carniola, and Carinthia, with the county of Tyrol. It was all these fertile provinces which Rudolph of Hapsburg was so fortunate as to make hereditary in his family.

Philip's plans were cut short by Count Palatine Otho of Wittelsbach* (the younger), who slew him at Bamberg, from motives of private revenge. Philip had promised to give Otho one of his daughters in marriage, and then married her to another prince.

Philip was buried in Bamberg, but afterwards his remains were removed to the royal choir in the cathedral of Speyer.

His wife was Irene, an imperial Greek princess, called also Maria, who died a few months after her husband. The Minnesinger Walther von der Vogelweide called her, "*Ros ane born, ain tube sunder gallen*" (Old German),—"A rose without thorns, a harmless dove."

OTHO IV. OF BRUNSWICK, OTTO VON BRAUNSCHWEIG.

A.D. 1197-1215.

"Strepit anser inter olores." (Among swans the goose is noisy.)

OTHO IV., son of Henry the Lion of Saxony, a Guelph, was elected by his party, supported by the Pope, at the same time that Philip of Suabia was crowned at Mayence. Immediately after Philip's assassination, Pope Innocent III. sent Marshal von Kallentin, the ancestor of the noble family of Pappenheim, to arrest Otho von Wittelsbach. He overtook him not far from Regensburg, cut off his head, and left his body to the fowls of the air.

Frederic II., son of Henry VI., was now thirteen years old; and Otho IV., to secure the empire and put an end to the quarrels between the Guelphs and the Hohenstaufens, married Beatrice, daughter of the Emperor Philip, though she was only twelve years old. She died soon after the wedding.

Pope Innocent crowned Otho, in 1208, under the express stipulation that he would be subservient to the Church; yet he soon found this

* Otho von Wittelsbach, who was invested with the duchy of Bavaria by Frederic Barbarossa, was a lineal descendant of the brave Luitpold, who lost his life fighting for Louis the Child, son of the Emperor Arnulph. The Bavarians were rejoiced to have a prince of the old race to rule them again. This family was called Scheyrer at first; but since the year 1116 they have been called Wittelsbach.

Guelph as difficult to manage as the Hohenstaufens, and excommunicated him in 1210.



OTTHON IV.

at Paris to answer for the murder of his nephew, Arthur. John did not obey the summons, and was in consequence pronounced guilty of murder, and all the lands he held in fief were declared forfeited. Nor-Philip lost no time in carrying the sentence into execution. Normandy proved an easy conquest, for John had abandoned himself to pleasure, and made no effort to retain it. Philip soon after made himself master of Maine, Touraine, and Anjou, and was only prevented from invading England itself by the peremptory command of the Pope, John having made his humble submission to the See of Rome and become its vassal.

A powerful confederacy was now formed against Philip by the King of England, the Duke of Flanders, and the Emperor Otho. Philip, with an army of fifty thousand men, met his enemies at Bouvines, near

Innocent had conferred Naples on the widowed Empress Constance, and had taken her minor son, afterwards Frederic II., under his guardianship. All eyes were now turned towards Frederic, and he was invited back to Germany with the consent of the Pope. Otho had lost the support of the Suabian and Bavarian princes through the death of his young wife Beatrice; and Philip Augustus of France promised to support the interests of Frederic, and a favorable opportunity soon presented itself.

Philip had long set his heart upon Normandy. King John of England, as Duke of Normandy, was Philip's vassal; and now he was summoned to appear

Tournay, August 27, 1214. The army of the confederates, under the command of the Emperor, was even more numerous, but the superior skill and vigilance of Philip gained him a decided victory. Otho, having encountered a French knight, was dismounted, and rescued with difficulty; alarmed at the danger, he seized another horse and fled, while Philip, with an exulting smile, said to his nobles, "My friends, we shall see nothing to-day but his back."

Otho fled to Brunswick, where he died in 1218, and was buried there.

His first wife was Beatrice, daughter of the Emperor Philip of Suabia; his second was Mary of Brabant.

The fourth crusade took place in Otho's time, at the instigation of Pope Innocent III., although the condition of the Christians did not require it. It assembled at Venice. But how entirely secular crusading had become will be seen from the fact that the army never went to Palestine at all, but preferred to take possession of the Byzantine Empire. The leader of this host of *pseudo-crusaders*, Baldwin, Count of Flanders, was seated on the throne of the East in 1204, where he and his successors maintained themselves for fifty-six years.

FREDERIC II., FRIEDRICH DER ZWEITE. A.D. 1215-1250.

"Minarum strepitus, asinorum crepitus." (Noise of threatenings is like the braying of an ass.)*

FREDERIC II. was born in 1194. His mother, Constance, had secured the favor of Pope Innocent III. for her infant son by conceding many important privileges to the papal chair; and after the civil war, which had reigned in Germany for eight years, was brought to an end by the death of Philip, Frederic, assisted by the Pope's influence, obtained the support of the electors, in 1212.

After the battle of Bouvines, Frederic took the Palatinate of the Rhine from Henry the Long, brother of Otho IV., and bestowed it upon Louis of Bavaria, nephew of Otho von Wittelsbach, who slew Philip of Suabia. Louis marched with an army to Heidelberg, where, after a conference with the Countess Agnes, wife of Henry the Long, he affianced his son Otho, afterwards surnamed the Illustrious, to

* An allusion to the attempt made against him to compel him to resign.

Agnes, the daughter and heiress of Count Henry the Long. After their marriage, in 1225, the Palatinate was united to Bavaria,—“Bayern und Pfalz,—Gott erhält's!” (Bavaria and the Palatinate,—God preserve them!)

Otho the Illustrious lived in the castle of Heidelberg until the death of his father, when he went to reside in Landshut, in Bavaria. On his way to Regensburg (Ratisbon), to receive the homage of his subjects, he was met by the Emperor's son Henry, who had entered Bavaria with an army in rebellion against his father. Henry was put under the ban of the empire, in 1235, defeated, and, being taken prisoner, was intrusted to the care of Otho, who confined him in the castle of Heidelberg, after which he was sent to Apulia, where he died in 1242.

Frederic then, in order to secure Otho as an ally, betrothed his second son, Conrad, who was seven years old, to Otho's daughter Elizabeth, who was only five. Otho, however, did not take the Emperor's part in his quarrel with Pope Gregory IX. But when the bishops and Albert Boemus began their arbitrary conduct in Bavaria, Otho took sides again with

Frederic; and the new alliance was sealed with the marriage of the Emperor's son Conrad and Otho's daughter Elizabeth, at the castle of Vohburg, in 1244.

Frederic was crowned at Aix-la-Chapelle in 1215, on his promising the Pope that he would undertake a crusade. After the death of Innocent, the next year, he breathed freer, and sent for his wife and son to come to Germany. Like his grandfather, Frederic Barbarossa, he was actuated by an ardent desire for the consolidation of the imperial power in Italy at the expense of the pontificate, which he wished to



FREDERIC II.

reduce to the rank of a mere archiepiscopal dignity. After securing the nomination of his son Conrad to the imperial dignity, he appointed Archbishop Engelbert of Cologne as his vicegerent, and went to Italy, where he was crowned by Pope Honorius III. in 1220, and then devoted himself to the task of organizing his Italian territories. He founded the University of Naples, gave encouragement to the medical school in Palermo, invited to his court and patronized men of learning, poets and artists, and commissioned his chancellor, Petrus de Vineis, to draw up a code of laws to suit all classes of his German and Italian subjects. His schemes for the union and improvement of his dominions were frustrated by the refractory conduct of the Lombard cities, and still more by Pope Gregory IX., who threatened him with excommunication unless he fulfilled his pledge of leading a crusade. Being compelled to depart, he made the necessary preparations for its execution; but, the plague breaking out among his troops in the Morea, he returned in haste to Italy, only to be forced away again by papal threats.

Andrew II., King of Hungary, who was joined by John de Brienne, King of Jerusalem, and Hugh of Lusignan, King of Cyprus, had started on a crusade; but hardly had they reached St. John of Acre when Andrew returned home and Hugh died suddenly. John, without being discouraged, carried the war into Egypt, defeated the Mussulmans, and, but for the obstinacy of the papal legate, Pelagio, who would not consent to any treaty with the infidels, would have recovered Jerusalem, which the Sultan offered to restore. The inundation of the Nile forced the crusaders to a disastrous retreat; and John, returning to Europe, gave Frederic the hand of his daughter Yoland, with all his claims to the kingdom of Jerusalem, in 1225. Thus it was through this marriage of Frederic that the kings of Naples and Sicily inherited the title of King of Jerusalem.

With this new motive, and at the same time solicited by the Sultan of Egypt, Malek-al-Kasnel, who was menaced with a serious revolt, Frederic appeared in Palestine, 1228, although under the ban of excommunication. The Sultan, partly through the great fame which the imperial sovereignty enjoyed in the East, and partly from personal esteem for Frederic, concluded with him a truce for ten years, and gave up Jerusalem, Bethlehem, and Nazareth. The Emperor then entered the Holy City, and visited the grave where the Saviour had lain; but the patriarchs of Jerusalem and the priests, obedient to the commands of the Pope, would celebrate no religious service in his presence. Frederic, however, performed his devotions, and in the presence of his nobles crowned himself with the crown of Jerusalem, after which he

returned directly to Italy. His presence speedily repaired all that was lost, and the Pope saw himself obliged, in 1230, to conclude a peace and remove the ban.

In 1235, Frederic held a great diet at Mayence, where sixty-four princes and about twelve hundred nobles and knights were present. Here written laws were made relative to the peace of the country, and other regulations adopted, which showed the empire the wisdom and prudence of its Emperor.

Frederic's marriage with the Princess Isabella of England at Worms that same year was celebrated with great splendor. There were present four kings, eleven dukes, and thirty counts and margraves. He was called from these peaceful occupations to Italy, where a second Lombard League was formed against him. Frederic with his army, among whom were thousands of Saracens, assisted by the terrible Eccelino of Romano, the ferocious and most devoted feudatory of the Suabian dynasty, defeated the cities; but the fierce republicans of Bologna, at the battle of Fossalta, in 1246, won a victory and took prisoner the handsome and brave Enzio, a natural son of the Emperor, and whom he had made king of Sardinia. The citizens of Bologna were so irritated that they refused all ransom for him, though they confined him in the palace of the Podesta, and entertained him in a splendid manner the rest of his life, which lasted twenty-two years.

The Emperor did not long survive this painful event; he died in 1250, in the arms of his natural son, Manfred, at the castle of Firenzuola, and was buried with great pomp in the cathedral of Palermo.

Since Charlemagne and Alfred of England, no potentate had existed who loved and promoted civilization in its broadest sense so much as Frederic II. His personal merit was so distinguished and universally recognized that he was enabled to collect around him the most celebrated men of his age without feeling any jealousy towards them,—a true proof of greatness. He understood Greek, Latin, Italian, French, German, and Arabic. Among the sciences he loved natural history the most; and his desire for fundamental knowledge in natural science had the happiest influence, especially upon medicine, obliging physicians to study anatomy before anything else. At his court there were often contests in science and art, and victorious wreaths bestowed, in which scenes Frederic himself shone as a poet, and invented and practiced many difficult measures of verse.

He made warm friends among the Eastern princes, and they vied with one another in sending him artistic works in token of their friendship. Even his enemies could not withhold their admiration of his

great qualities. He was fair, like his grandfather, but not so tall, although well and strongly formed, and very skillful in all warlike and corporeal exercises. His forehead, nose, and mouth bore the impress of that delicate yet firm character which we admire in Grecian statues. His eye was generally serene and cheerful, yet it could flash with indignation and severity. Mildness with seriousness was, throughout his life, the distinguishing feature of this Emperor.

His first wife was Constance of Aragon, the mother of Henry; the second was Yoland of Jerusalem, the mother of Conrad IV.; and the third was Isabella of England. His daughter Margaret married Albert of Thuringia.

Frederic's valiant son, Conrad IV., lost his life in Italy, in 1254. Manfred was chosen regent of Naples and Sicily during the minority of Conradino, son of Conrad IV.; but Pope Clement IV. refused to grant him the investiture, and gave it to Charles of Anjou, brother of St. Louis of France. Charles promised to hold the kingdom as a fief of the Holy See, pay a tribute of eight thousand ounces of gold, and send the pontiff every year a white palfrey in sign of vassalage.

Charles of Anjou, with the banner of the Church at the head of his brilliant army, met Manfred near Beneventum. Manfred was surrounded by a guard of Saracens. In the heat of the conflict the silver eagle of his cross fell or was struck off. "*It is the sign of God!*" he exclaimed; and, rushing upon the enemy, fell, covered with wounds, A.D. 1266.

Everything gave way to the conqueror; but the Italians soon grew tired of the cold and imperious Charles, and called Conradino from Germany.

Conradino, after his father's death, left Suabia, and went with his mother to live in Bavaria. As he grew older, the bold and enterprising spirit of his ancestors awoke within him, and he resolved to drive the robbers from his inheritance. When the summons came to him from Naples, his mother, Elizabeth, begged him not to go; but in his youthful ardor, he set out, in 1268, accompanied by his faithful friend and relative, Prince Frederic of Baden, and many faithful knights of Germany. The Ghibellines of Tuscany, and the numerous adherents of his family in Italy, flocked to his standard, and he advanced with a large army to the walls of Viterbo, to frighten Clement IV., the ally of Charles of Anjou. "*They are victims going to the sacrifice,*" said the Pope; and shortly after his words were verified at the battle of Tagliacozzo. Fortune at first favored Conradino, but by a stratagem of the old French crusader, Alard de St. Valery, and the bravery of

William of Villehardouin, he was defeated. Conradino, separated from his friends, fled in disguise across the mountains to Astura, on the sea-shore, where he was betrayed by the Roman noble, Frangipani, and delivered into the hands of Charles. And such were the insolence, perfidy, and cruelty of the tyrant, that he treated Conradino as a rebel against himself, the legitimate and true king, and caused him and Prince Frederic to be beheaded publicly in the market-place of Naples, on the 28th of October, 1268. The unfortunate Conradino was only sixteen years old when he was beheaded. Before his execution, he transferred all his rights to Constance, the daughter of Manfred, and this princess became afterwards the avenger of the Hohenstaufens. For, as the wife of Peter III. of Aragon, she favored the horrible conspiracy known under the name of the Sicilian Vespers, in the year 1282, by which Charles of Anjou lost his usurped kingdom of Sicily. At Silz, in the Tyrol, is the extensive Cistercian monastery of Stams, founded in 1271, by Elizabeth, the mother of Conradino, with the money she had collected for his ransom. She is also said to have caused his remains to be brought from Naples and interred there.

Henry Raspe of Thuringia was elected Emperor by the ecclesiastic princes, in 1246, while Frederic II. was under the ban of the Pope. He was called in derision the *Pfaffen-König*—priest's king. He was defeated at Ulm, and died shortly after, 1247.

Some historians say that Manfred was the son of the Emperor and his beautiful Italian consort, Bianca.

Conrad, Duke of Masovia, in Poland, proffering liberal rewards in the year 1230, invited the knights of the Teutonic order, who, on their exclusion from Palestine, had taken up their residence in Venice, to come and subdue the ferocious Prussians and convert them to the Christian faith. They came into the country under Hermann of Balck, their leader, and, after an uninterrupted and cruel war of fifty-three years, subdued them and forced them to allow the Christian religion to take the place of that of their fathers.

In the fourth council of the Lateran, 1215, Pope Innocent III., on account of the different opinions respecting the *manner* in which Christ's body and blood are present in the Eucharist, pronounced that opinion to be the true one which is now universal in the Romish Church, and he consecrated to it the hitherto unknown term *transubstantiation*.

One Juliana, a nun, who lived at Liege, gave out that she had been divinely instructed that it was the pleasure of God that an annual

festival should be kept in honor of the *body of Christ* as present in the Holy Supper; and Urban IV., in 1264, imposed this festival upon the Church. Clement V. confirmed the edict of Urban, in 1311, and this festival contributed to establish the people in the doctrine of *transubstantiation* more than the decree of the Lateran Council under Innocent III.

CONTEMPORARIES OF THE HOHENSTAUFENS.

Stephen, nephew of Henry I., began to reign in England A.D. 1135. Most of his reign was spent in wars with the Empress Maud, the rightful heir to the crown. After much fighting on both sides, it was agreed that Stephen should reign during his life, and that the Empress's son, Henry Plantagenet, should succeed him. Stephen's queen, Matilda of Boulogne, the last of the Anglo-Norman queens, was the daughter of Matilda of Scotland and Eustace, Count of Boulogne. Godfrey of Boulogne, the hero of Tasso's "Jerusalem Delivered," and Baldwin, his brother, who successively wore the crown of Jerusalem, were her uncles. She was perfect in the most important of all royal accomplishments,—the art of pleasing,—that art in which her royal cousin, the Empress Maud, was so little skilled. Her brother-in-law, Henry de Blois, Bishop of Winchester, that diplomatic statesman-priest, said that she was of more effectual service in her husband's cause than all the foreign swords Stephen had rashly called to the support of his tottering throne.

Henry II., Plantagenet, came to the throne in 1154. He ranks among the greatest kings of England, not only in the extent of his dominions, but in all the qualities which give lustre to authority, being equally fitted for public life or cultivated leisure. His wisdom and love of justice were acknowledged by foreign potentates, who made him arbiter of their differences, and regarded him as the first prince of the age. He married Eleanor of Aquitaine six weeks after her divorce from Louis VII. of France. At that time she was thirty-two years of age, and Henry twenty. Had it not been for Eleanor's fleet, which aided Henry, England might never have reckoned the name of Plantagenet among those of her royal dynasties. The coronation of the King of England and the luxurious lady of the south, at Westminster Abbey, in 1154, was without parallel for magnificence. The connection of the merchants of England with Aquitaine was highly advantageous to commerce. Henry annexed Ireland to England in 1172. He had much trouble with Thomas à Becket, and with his rebellious sons.*

* The condition of the monks in his time may be gathered from an anecdote related by Giraldus Cambrensis. The prior and monks of St. Swithin threw themselves prostrate

Richard Cœur de Lion succeeded his father in 1189. He was the bravest of the brave, frank, liberal, and generous, but at the same time haughty, violent, rapacious, and sanguinary. He left his mother the government of the kingdom during his absence on the crusade.* His mother, Eleanor, is among the very few women who have atoned for an ill-spent youth by a wise and benevolent old age. Richard married Berengaria, the beautiful daughter of Sancho the Wise of Navarre. Richard first saw her when Count of Poitou, at a tournament given by her gallant brother, Sancho the Strong, at Pampeluna, her native city. Robin Hood lived in the time of King Richard.

John, Richard's brother, succeeded to the throne in 1199. No prince in English history has been handed down to posterity in blacker colors than John. The best part of his conduct as a ruler was the attention he paid to commerce and maritime affairs. The popular constitution of London was his gift. The barons compelled him to sign the Magna Charta,—the basis of English constitutional freedom. The Pope excommunicated him, because he refused to accept Stephen Langton as Archbishop of Canterbury. John was forced to yield, and gave to the Pope of Rome, Innocent III., the kingdom of England and all the prerogatives of his crown. Stephen Langton divided our Bible into chapters and verses. John married Isabella, only child and heiress of Aymer, Count of Angoulême. She was first affianced to Hugh de Lusignan; but dazzled by the triple crowns of England, Normandy, and Aquitaine, she broke, or rather would not acknowledge, her engagement, and was married to John at Bordeaux, in August, 1200. After John's death she returned to her native country, and married her old lover, Hugh. She was then thirty-four years old, and still retained her marvelous beauty. She has been called the Helen of the Middle Ages.

one day, on the ground and in the mire, before Henry II., complaining with many tears and much doleful lamentation, that the Bishop of Winchester, who was also their abbot, had cut off *three dishes* from their table. "How many has he left you?" said the King. "Ten only," replied the disconsolate monks. "I myself," exclaimed the King, "never have more than *three*; and I enjoin your bishop to reduce you to the same number."

* Richard, when about to enter on his crusade, carried so little the appearance of sanctity in his conduct, that Fulk, Curate of Neuilly, a zealous preacher of the crusade, who, from that merit, had acquired the privilege of speaking the boldest truths, advised Richard to rid himself of his notorious sins, particularly his *pride, avarice, and voluptuousness*, which he called the King's three favorite daughters. "You counsel well," replied Richard; "and I hereby dispose of the first to the Templars, of the second to the Benedictines, and of the third to my prelates." Such a sarcasm from a monarch shows the notoriety of clerical vice, as well as the particular direction it took in the principal classes of clerical persons.

Henry III. succeeded John, his father, when he was only nine years old. During his minority England was governed by the Earl of Pembroke, a nobleman of great worth and valor. As Henry grew up he was without activity or vigor, therefore unfit to govern in war; without distrust or suspicion, he was imposed on in times of peace. He married Eleanor of Provence, the second daughter of Beranger, the last and most illustrious of the royal counts of Provence. Great offense was taken by the nation at the number of foreigners who followed her to England. Eleanor's uncle, Count Peter of Savoy, who inherited the shores of the lake of Annecy, in Savoy, resided long at the court of Henry III., who, admiring his excellent qualities, made him Earl of Richmond, and gave him for his residence the palace called *Savoy House*, on the banks of the Thames. It was to the friendship of Henry's brother, Richard of Cornwall, who was elected Emperor of Germany, that Count Peter owed those extensive grants in Burgundy (Switzerland). Peter died at his favorite residence, the romantic castle of Chillon, in 1268, and was buried in the splendid abbey of Hautcombe, on the lake of Annecy, founded by Count Amadeus, the crusader.

Louis VII., surnamed the Young, came to the throne of France in 1137. He was naturally amiable, but without much talent; but so long as the wise Suger lived his deficiencies were unnoticed. Louis married Eleanor of Aquitaine, and united that extensive territory to the crown. Influenced by St. Bernard, in opposition to the advice of Suger, he engaged in the crusade which ended so disastrously for him. On his return, the reproaches of his subjects, and his own self-accusation, changed his temper: he became morose, quarreled with his queen, divorced her, and she married Henry II. of England about six weeks afterwards. Louis had a right to retain a part, at least, of her vast dower as a portion for her two daughters; but he resigned the whole, and her important territory became annexed to England. Louis married, for his second wife, Constance of Castile, who died four years after her marriage. In hopes of having an heir to the throne, he married Alice of Champagne,—a choice dictated from motives of policy, Champagne being one of the most powerful provinces in France. Moreover, Louis's two daughters by Eleanor, Mary and Alice, were married to the two brothers of Alice of Champagne. Alice possessed superior talents, an amiable disposition, elegant manners, and her taste for the fine arts and poetry, which Eleanor of Aquitaine had introduced into France, rendered her the ornament of a court renowned for politeness. Four years elapsed before the birth of her son Philip Augustus, surnamed *Dieu-donné, God's gift*. The queen paid the most devoted

attention to the education of her son, who became one of the greatest among the kings of France. Louis, when only forty-five years old, was as decrepit as a man of eighty, and thinking to recover his health, made a pilgrimage to the shrine of Thomas à Becket, in 1179. On his return, he had his son Philip crowned King of France, and died five months after.

Philip Augustus, the first king of France who may be called a politician, succeeded his father in 1180. Until this time France had been only a confederation of princes, governed by a feudal chief; but he soon made himself absolute king. By his first marriage with Isabella, a descendant of Charlemagne, daughter of Baldwin IV., Count of Hainault, he received Artois as her dower. Their son, Louis VIII., was born in 1187. Isabella died about the time Philip was leaving for the crusade with Frederic Barbarossa and Richard Coeur de Lion. Philip married, for his second wife, Ingborge, daughter of Waldemar, King of Denmark. She was first affianced to a son of Frederic Barbarossa; but the marriage not having taken place, Philip married her, in 1193, for the purpose of contracting a formidable alliance against England. Soon after her coronation Philip divorced her upon some frivolous pretext, and married Agnes de Meranie, a descendant also of Charlemagne, and daughter of a French duke. She was exceedingly beautiful, talented, graceful, and virtuous, and the theme of minstrelsy among the Troubadours and poets. The barons called her "*La Fleur des Dames*." Meantime Ingborge maintained her dignified character, and the King of Denmark, taking advantage of the general feeling in her favor, sent ambassadors to Rome. Pope Celestin III. repealed her sentence of divorce, and declared the marriage of Philip with Agnes to be null. Pope Innocent III. followed up this sentence, and placed the kingdom under an interdict, in 1199, which lasted eight months, and forced Philip to reinstate Ingborge as his wife and queen in 1201. Innocent, to repair the wrong done Agnes, pronounced her two children legitimate,—Mary, who afterwards married Henry IV., Duke of Brabant, and Tristan, Count of Clermont. Philip enlarged Paris to four times its original size, and caused its two principal streets to be paved with large, flat stones. He added Artois, Normandy, Maine, Touraine, Anjou to his dominions. Philip was fond of reading romances, and it is to his taste that we owe the marvelous histories of "King Arthur and the Knights of the Round Table," "Charlemagne and his Peers," "Alexander the Great," and the "Melodies of Mother Goose."

Louis VIII. succeeded his father in 1223, and, although called the

Lion, was weak both in mind and in body. The greatest compliment flattering historians could pay him was, "He was the son of an excellent father, and the father of an excellent son." He married Blanche, daughter of Alphonso IX. of Castile and of Eleanor, daughter of Henry II. of England. The marriage of this queen, so justly celebrated for her talents in the administration of government, as well as for her lofty character and the excellent education her son received under her direction, was brought about by her grandmother, Eleanor of Aquitaine. The short reign of Louis was spent in war with Henry III. of England, and in a relentless persecution of the poor Albigeans. He laid siege to one of their cities, but the intense heat caused a fever, which carried off twenty thousand of his troops, and he himself fell a victim. Assembling his nobles around his bed, he made them swear to crown his eldest son, and obey Queen Blanche as regent of the kingdom during his minority. In 1226, Blanche became regent. Her character will be better understood from an anecdote. Some serfs of Notre Dame being unable to pay their contributions, the priests in anger thrust them into prison, where they could hardly move or breathe for want of air. The queen sent word to the priests to set the men free, offering to become their security for the money demanded of them. The priests, taking offense at this, seized the wives and families of the poor men, and crowded them into the same small space, where many died of suffocation. On this the queen proceeded to the prison and ordered her attendants to force open the doors. So great was their fear of offending the Church, that not one dared to obey her. The queen then took an axe, and with her own hands began to break the door. Thus encouraged, her attendants set to work, and the doors were soon opened. Many of the prisoners fainted as soon as they felt the fresh air. Those who were able to speak loaded her with blessings. But her kindness did not rest here, for she made them all free forever.

Louis IX., commonly called *St. Louis*, attained his majority in 1235. He had a truly upright and benevolent disposition, was mild and forgiving, and at the same time firm and brave. His integrity was inflexible; and, unlike his predecessors, who regarded the founding of a church or a monastery as an expiation for their sins, he used to say, "Living men are the stones of God's temple, and the Church is more beautiful with good morals than by rich walls." He married Margaret, daughter of Raymond Berenger III., Count of Provence, and of Beatrice of Savoy, and received a promise of twenty thousand francs, as well as the rich province of Provence, as her dower. Margaret was amiable and sensible, had received a careful education, and had been

surrounded by the most intelligent and brilliant characters at the court of her father, who was a generous patron of poets and artists. Louis, from motives of piety, went on a crusade: he landed in Egypt, was unsuccessful, was taken prisoner, and ransomed for four hundred thousand pounds of silver. After this he went to Palestine, obtained many very precious relics, and on his return founded the Sainte Chapelle (Holy Chapel), in Paris, where, with great ceremony, he deposited them. He then devoted his time to repairing the damage France had sustained in his absence. He framed a code of laws, and administered justice with strict impartiality, as his brother, Charles of Anjou, found to his cost. When the Pope offered the crown of Sicily to him for one of his sons, he declined, saying, "It is not just for me to take the property of another." However, his unscrupulous brother, Charles of Anjou, accepted it. Louis, by a wise administration of sixteen years, brought his kingdom into a flourishing condition, and then made preparations for another crusade. Animated by a wild hope of converting the King of Tunis, he set sail for that kingdom, and was to be followed by Charles of Anjou and Prince Edward of England. Instead of finding a willing convert, he found a formidable enemy, and in consequence laid siege to Tunis. The plague soon broke out in his camp, and Louis was seized with it. He sent for his oldest son, gave him a paper containing instructions for his future life, and exhorted him to govern with justice. Then, to show his humility and penitence, he caused himself to be lifted from his bed and laid upon ashes on the floor of his tent, where he died, August 25, 1270. Just as he breathed his last, the fleet of Charles of Anjou arrived, and he returned to Europe with the remains of St. Louis and his son Tristan, who also died of the plague. The Sire de Joinville, who accompanied Louis on his first crusade, had too much wisdom to go a second time. He lived honored and respected to a very great age, being more than a hundred years old when he died. The queen, knowing his affection for the king, and how faithfully he had served him, earnestly entreated him to write a small book recording the holy actions and sayings of her deceased husband. It is from Joinville's "Memoirs" that we get much knowledge of those times.

DOMINICANS.

Dominic de Guzman, born in Old Castile, in 1170, founded the order of preaching friars called Dominicans, at Toulouse, in 1215, and began to travel in the South of France for the purpose of converting the "heretical Albigenses," convinced that the ignorance of the

people and the worldliness of the clergy had caused this heresy. After vainly attempting to convert them, he prevailed upon the Pope to start a crusade against these heretics. A numerous army was levied, called *l'ost de notre Seigneur*,—the host of our Lord,—and was led by Simon de Montfort.* The war was carried on with the most ferocious cruelty; and at the storming of Beziers, in 1218, when it was proposed to spare the Catholics, a monk exclaimed, "Kill all; God will recognize his own!" and the atrocious precept was but too well obeyed. The dress of the Dominicans was a white garment with a black cloak, and pointed cap of the same color. In many pictures, the Dominicans (*Domine canes*, the Lord's dogs) are represented as spotted dogs chasing *wolves*,—heretics. The Inquisition was confided to their care. The immediate cause of this tribunal of faith—the Inquisition—was the sect of the Albigenses. Pope Innocent III. conceived this method of extirpating rebellious members of the Church, and his immediate successors completed it.

FRANCISCANS.

Francis of Assisi (a town near Perugia) was born in 1182, of the family of Bernardini of Assisi. His name was John, but from his knowledge of the Romance, or language of the Troubadours, he acquired the name of "*Il Franciscus*,"—the little Frenchman. He founded the Franciscan order at Assisi, in 1212. Their dress is a brown tunic of coarse woolen cloth girt with a hempen cord. In 1223, St. Francis went as a missionary to the East, and preached to the Sultan himself; but the only fruit of his mission was a promise of the Sultan for more indulgent treatment for the Christian captives, and for the Franciscan order the privilege which they since have enjoyed as guardians of the Church of the Holy Sepulchre.

Pierre Cardinal, of an illustrious family at Puy in Velay, who died when almost a century old, occupied, at the commencement of the thirteenth century, a distinguished place among the Troubadours, less on account of the harmony of his style than of the vigor and asperity of his satirical powers. He is the Juvenal of the Provençals. His boldness astonishes us, at a period when the Inquisition might have called him to account for his offenses against the Church.

* Simon was Lord of Montfort, not far from Paris, and Earl of Leicester, in England; and the unrighteous liberality of Pope Innocent III., in the Council of the Lateran, in 1215, made him Duke of Narbonne, Earl of Toulouse, and Viscount of Beziers and Carcassonne, territories which were in part fiefs of the German Empire, and in part fiefs of the kings of France, and which the Pope had no right to dispose of without the consent of their liege lords.

Speaking of the priests, he says, "Indulgences and pardons, God and the Devil, are all put in requisition. Upon these they bestow Paradise by their pardons; others they condemn to perdition by their excommunications. They inflict blows which cannot be parried, and no one is so skillful in imposition that they cannot impose upon him. There are no crimes for which the monks cannot give absolution. For money they grant to renegades and usurers that sepulture which they deny to the poor because they are unable to pay for it. To live pleasantly,—to buy good fish, the whitest bread, and the finest wine,—this is their object the whole year round. God willing, I would be of this order if I could purchase my salvation at this price."

On the general depravity of the times, he says, "From the east to the west, I will make a new covenant with all the world. To every loyal man I will give a *bezant*,* if the disloyal will give me a nail. To all the courteous I will give a mark of gold, if the discourteous will give me a penny. To all that speak the truth I will give a heap of gold, if every liar will give me an egg. As to all the laws that are obeyed, I could write them upon a piece of parchment no larger than half the thumb of my glove. A young turtle-dove would nourish all the brave, but if I should be ashamed to offer them a scanty entertainment. But if I had to invite the wicked, I would cry, without regard to the place, Come and feast, all honest people."

Raymond de Castelnau exclaims, "If God has willed the black monks to be unrivaled in their good eating and in their amours, and the white monks in their lying bulls, and the Templars and Hospitallers in pride, and the canons in usury, I hold St. Peter and St. Andrew to have been egregious fools for suffering so many torments for the sake of God, since all these people also are to be saved."

Driven by persecution, various sects from other parts of Europe had come to the South of France, and, from the number who had settled in the diocese of Alby, received the name of Albigenses. They were a moral people, but denied the sovereignty of the Pope, the powers of the priesthood, the efficacy of prayers for the dead, and the existence of purgatory. They enjoyed a wise toleration in the territories of the Count of Toulouse. At this period, the Provençals, who had been enriched by their commercial intercourse with the Moors and Jews, and who had, of necessity, been thrown into contact with those people, respected the right of conscience, whilst the inhabitants of the country north of the Loire were completely subjected to the power of the

* *Bezant*, a coin current in Constantinople, of about the value of ten shillings.

priests and the dominion of fanaticism. The Spaniards, more enlightened still than the Provençals, and not far removed from the period when they had themselves been compelled to claim the freedom of opinion under the Moorish yoke, were still more tolerant. A century before the Sicilian Vespers, the kings of Aragon were the declared protectors of all who were persecuted by the papal power, and in emulation of the kings of Castile, they were at one time the mediators for the Albigenses, and at another their defenders in the field. The immediate pretense for the crusade of Pope Innocent III., in 1209, was the murder of the papal legate and inquisitor, Peter of Castelnau, who had been commissioned to extirpate heresy in the dominions of Count Raymond VI. of Toulouse; but its real object was to deprive the count of his lands, as he had become an object of hatred from his toleration of the heretics. After hundreds of thousands had perished on both sides, a peace was concluded, in 1229, at which Raymond VII. purchased relief from the ban of the Church by immense sums of money, gave up Narbonne and several lordships to Louis IX., and had to make his son-in-law, the brother of Louis, heir of his other possessions.

DIE HEILIGE VEHME.

While the Inquisition was gaining a foothold in the south, the secret tribunal called Die Heilige Vehme was growing stronger in the north. When Henry the Lion was put under the ban of the empire and deprived of his possessions, in 1179, Westphalia was granted to the Archbishop of Cologne, and in the general confusion which then prevailed in Germany, when all laws, both civil and ecclesiastical, had lost their authority, and the fabric of society seemed toppling into ruins, the *Heilige Vehme*—Holy Court—was organized for the purpose of arresting and controlling the incipient anarchy that threatened to bring chaos back again, and of inspiring with feelings of salutary terror, through the agency of their mysterious powers and solemn judgments, all rapacious and lawless persons, particularly the feudal barons, who committed crimes with impunity. In any German state, the man who had a complaint against his neighbor, which could not be sustained before the ordinary judges, betook himself to the Heilige Vehme. These secret tribunals were most terrible in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries. The members recognized each other by certain signs and watch-words, and hence were called *Wissenden* (knowing ones), or *Illuminati*. They bound themselves by a tremendous oath to support the holy tribunal, and "to conceal it from wife and child, father and mother, sister and brother, fire and wind, from all that the sun shines

on, the rain moistens, and from all that is between heaven and earth." They acknowledged the Emperor as their superior, and made him one of their number at his coronation. Their open tribunals were held by day, in the open air; their secret ones by night, in the dungeons of castles or subterraneous places.

Dortmund, that ancient walled town and free imperial city and Hanse town, was the chief seat of the Vehme. The site of the present *Bahnhof* (railway station) was the place of meeting of the most celebrated of all the tribunals held in the district of the "Red Earth" (so called from the color of the soil). Under the venerable lime-tree which still grows on the west side of the station, the naked sword of justice and the willow wythe were laid upon a stone table before the assembled judges. In 1429, the Emperor Sigismund was initiated in the Königshof,—King's Court,—under the lime-tree at Dortmund, kneeling on his right knee bared, with head uncovered, before the *Freigraf*,—Free Count,—the two forefingers of his right hand on the wythe, and two swords laid crosswise before him; he took the oath to keep the secrets of the Vehme, and received the watch-words,—Strick, Stein, Grass, Grein (rope, stone, horrible, weep),—the meaning of which, as well as of the password,—"Reinir dor Fewerei,"—has been so well kept that they are no longer understood.

The summons was secretly affixed to the door of the accused, who was to meet the *Wissende* at a certain hour and place and be conducted before the tribunal. The persons convicted, as well as those who refused to obey the summons, were given over to the executioners. The first *Freischoffe* who met him was bound to hang him on a tree, or, if he made any resistance, to put him otherwise to death. A knife was left by the corpse to show that it was not a murder, but a punishment inflicted by one of the *Freischaffen*. The last real Vehme, or Femgericht, was held at Celle, in Hanover, in the year 1568. A remnant of the institution existed in Westphalia until the year 1811, at which time it was performing the functions of a society for the suppression of vice, when it was abolished by an order of Jerome Bonaparte.

HANSEATIC LEAGUE.

Hansa, in the old Teutonic dialect, means league for mutual defense. In those times the sea and land swarmed with pirates and robbers; and the navigation of the Elbe became so insecure that it gave rise to a confederacy in 1241, between Hamburg, Hadeln, and Lubec, to defend one another against all violence, and particularly against all attacks of the nobles. In 1247, Brunswick joined the league, and then city after

city followed, until, in 1260, it became necessary to hold a diet at Lubec. The largest number of cities or towns that ever belonged to it was eighty-five. Four great factories, as they were called, were established in foreign countries,—in London, in 1250; in Bruges, in 1252; in Novgorod, in 1272; and in Bergen, in 1278. Charters from kings and princes gave firmness to the whole; and in 1364 an act of confederacy was drawn up and signed at Cologne. But when the routes by land and sea were no longer insecure, and the discovery of America produced a total revolution in trade, this league was no longer necessary. The Emperor Charles V. was opposed to this alliance, and their last diet was held at Lubec, in 1630. Hamburg, Bremen, and Lubec were incorporated with the French empire in 1810. As these cities co-operated vigorously in the recovery of German independence, they were acknowledged, together with Frankfort, as free cities of Germany, by the Congress of Vienna.

IMPERIAL FREE CITIES.

Cologne, Bonn, Coblenz, Worms, and Speyer, on the Rhine, and Ratisbon (Regensburg), Passau, and Vienna, had, in their origin, been Roman camps of the sixteen legions that for centuries had been stationed on the borders of Germany. The neighboring Gallic and German inhabitants had successively settled around these bulwarks for their protection and commerce. Foreign merchants from distant countries had there opened their markets and fairs, and thus those wealthy and powerful cities arose which, later during the Middle Ages as free imperial towns,—*Freie Reichsstädte*,—were to form their armed confederacies and bear down on the spear-point the despotism of the proud nobility of the Germanic empire.

The German cities developed rapidly after the tenth century. The Italian republics, whose first formation we discover in the times of the Saxon Emperors,—Milan, Pavia, Genoa, Pisa, Lodi, Como,—and the free communes in France (that is, republican cities),—Le Mans, Cambrai, Soissons, and Amiens,—extended their influence into Germany.

Though the political system of the Hohenstaufen Emperors was adverse to the emancipation of the cities, yet they were often obliged, in their contests with princes and prelates, to demand the aid of the faithful and wealthy burgesses, and to grant them privileges and immunities. The German cities, during that bustling period, daily increased in population and riches; and the crusades to the East and on the Baltic developed new resources for more extensive commerce. Venice, Genoa, and Pisa brought the merchandise of the Levant to their ports, whence it was conveyed through the passes of the Alps

into Germany, and thence to the North Sea and the Baltic. Augsburg, Strasburg, Ratisbon, Nuremberg, Bamberg, Worms, Speyer, and Mayence, in the south and centre of Germany, Cologne, Erfurt, Brunswick, Lüneberg, Hamburg, Bremen, Lubec, and many others, in the north, built and extended their walls and towers, and a continually active and increasing population animated their streets. Their riches soon gave them the means to purchase their freedom from the princes, who had been impoverished by their continual feuds, and sought every means to restore their exhausted resources.

The great point with the citizens was to get rid of the imperial or seigneurial bailiff, and to form their own municipal government with civic magistrates (*Bürgermeister*) and councillors (*Rathsherren*) at the head of the executive power; then to establish their city law (*Stadtrecht*), their courts of justice, and arm the citizens under the banner of the town. The nobility, when too late, began to perceive the danger arising from such numerous corporations of organized and armed citizens; while the towns, foreseeing the opposition of the nobles, began to strengthen their cause by confederacies for the protection of their freedom, their independence, and their commerce.

The Confederacy of the Rhenish Cities, *der Rheinische Städtebund*, for offense and defense against the petty princes on the Rhine, who from their castles plundered the commerce on that superb river, was formed in 1247-55. It was a citizen of Mayence, Arnold Walpode, who first suggested the plan of freeing commerce from the oppression of the knightly highwaymen whose strongholds studded the banks of the Rhine. All the cities from Basle down to Wesel joined the Confederacy, and even the haughty ecclesiastic sovereigns, Gerhard of Mayence, Conrad of Cologne, Arnold of Treves, the Abbot of Fulda, and the counts and barons, were forced by the arms of the merchants to enter the association.

CELEBRATED SCHOLARS.

Albert, Count of Bollstädt, was born in Suabia, about the year 1193. He is usually called Albertus Magnus or Albertus Teutonicus. He studied at Padua, and taught at Hildesheim, Ratisbon, and Cologne.

Saxo Grammaticus, a Dane, who wrote the history of Denmark, flourished in 1170.

William of Tyre, Archbishop of Tyre in 1174, wrote a history of the crusades.

Peter Lombard, so called because he was born in Lombardy, was Bishop of Paris in 1150. He wrote a commentary on the Psalms,

made a collection from the Fathers on the Epistles of St. Paul, and a system of divinity, extracted from the writings of Hilary, Ambrose, Jerome, and Augustine, entitled *The Sentences*.

Conrad of Lichtenau was for some time in the court of the Emperor Henry VI., and in 1205 became abbot of a monastery in Suabia.

Roderic Ximenes, Archbishop of Toledo, in 1208 wrote a history of Spain.

Gervase of Tilbury, nephew to Henry II. of England, was made Marshal of Arles, in France. He was a favorite with the Emperor Otho IV., and wrote works to amuse him.

Roger Bacon, an English monk, born in 1214, through the force of his intellect raised himself far above his age. He paid great attention to science, invented the magnifying-glass, and made several chemical discoveries.

Thomas Aquinas, of the family of the counts of Aquino, was born in the castle of Rocca Secca, in 1224. He received the rudiments of his education from the Benedictine monks of Monte Casino, and completed his studies at the University of Naples. Afterwards he went to the Dominican college at Cologne, to be further instructed by the famous Albertus Magnus. There he studied in such silence that his companions gave him the name of the "Dumb Ox." Albertus replied, "This ox will one day fill the world with his bellowing." St. Thomas, called also the "Angelic Doctor," became one of the most influential of the scholastic theologians.

Matthew Paris, an English Benedictine monk, initiated at St. Albans, in 1217, is accounted the best historian of the Middle Ages.

Robert de Sorbonne, a favorite of St. Louis, founded and endowed the College of Theology in Paris, in 1250. The college afterwards took his name.

Marco Polo, son of a Venetian merchant, the greatest traveler in the thirteenth century, visited the Great Khan of the Tartars, China, Japan, the East Indies, Madagascar, and the coast of Africa. He made the acquaintance of *Prester John*, and is said to have brought home the mariner's compass from China.*

* In Asiatic Tartary, Kenchan, a very powerful king, having died in the beginning of the twelfth century, a certain priest of the Nestorians, whose name was John, made so successful an attack upon the kingdom while it was destitute of a head that he gained possession of it, and from a presbyter became the sovereign of a great empire. This was the famous Prester John, whose country was for a long time deemed by the Europeans the seat of all felicity and opulence. Because he had been a presbyter before he gained the kingdom, most persons continued to call him Prester John after he had acquired regal dignity.

INTERREGNUM.

William of Holland was the first to be elected Emperor. In the winter of 1256, he marched against the Frisians with his army of chevaliers, and, crossing the frozen lake near Medenblic, the ice broke under him, and being in full armor, on his heavy war-horse, the light-footed Frisians rushed upon him, and, refusing money and promises, killed him and all his helpless men-at-arms. After his death the electors, in 1257, sold the title of Emperor to *Richard of Cornwall*, brother of Henry III. of England, but were unable to confer on him the power connected with that dignity. Then *Alphonso X.** was elected, but he never went to Germany.

The duchy of Franconia became extinct when the succession of the Salic House terminated, in 1137. Suabia was dismembered on the fall of the Hohenstaufens, and divided between the nobility and the Church. Only the counts of Würtenberg succeeded in placing themselves at the head of the Suabian nobility. They had already chosen Stuttgart as their place of residence. After them the counts of Baden, scions of the Hohenstaufen race, acquired from the House of Zähringen the territory of the Breisgau, on the Upper Rhine. This was the beginning of the House of Baden.

The great families of Austria, Bavaria, and Luxemburg, though not electoral, were the real heads of the German Empire. The throne had now been vacant twenty-three years, and Pope Gregory X., seeing the unsettled state of things, ordered an Emperor to be chosen, or he would choose one himself. This choice was left to the seven electors, the Archbishops of Mayence, Treves, and Cologne, and the Electors of Saxony, Brandenburg, the Palatinate, and Bohemia. Their choice fell upon Rudolph of Hapsburg.

* Alphonso X., surnamed "the Astronomer," "the Philosopher," or "the Wise," King of Leon and Castile, was the most learned prince of his time, and has acquired lasting fame through the completion of the code of laws commenced by his father which in 1501, became the universal law of the land. He lavished the resources of his kingdom in fruitless efforts to secure his election to the imperial throne of Germany. There are still extant several long poems of his, besides a work on chemistry, and another on philosophy. He is also credited with a history of the Church and the crusades, and is said to have ordered a translation of the Bible into Spanish. He sought to improve the Ptolemaic planetary tables, and in 1240 he assembled at Toledo upwards of fifty of the most celebrated astronomers of that age. His improved tables, still known under the name of the Alphonsine Tables were completed in 1252, at the cost of forty thousand ducats,—an unprecedented sum to be expended on such a work in those days.

HAPSBURG, AND OTHER HOUSES.

A.D.

RUDOLPH OF HAPSBURG claimed maternal descent from Charle-	
magne	1273-1291
ADOLPH OF NASSAU, descended from a brother of Conrad I.	1292-1298
ALBERT I., son of Rudolph of Hapsburg	1298-1308
HENRY VII. of Luxemburg	1308-1313
FREDERIC THE HANDSOME, son of Albert I.	1314-1330
LOUIS THE BAVARIAN, cousin of Frederic the Handsome	1314-1347
CHARLES IV., grandson of Henry VII. of Luxemburg	1347-1378
GUNTHER OF SCHWARZBURG	1349
WENCESLAUS, son of Charles IV.	1378-1410
RUPERT OF THE PALATINATE, of the House of Wittelsbach	1400-1410
SIGISMUND, brother of Wenceslaus	1410-1437

HAPSBURG, AND OTHER HOUSES.

RUDOLPH OF HAPSBURG, RUDOLPH VON HABSBURG.
A.D. 1273.

"*Melius bene imperare, quam imperium ampliare.*" (Better to govern the empire well than to enlarge it.)

THE castle of Hapsburg, *Hawk's Castle*, the cradle of the House of Austria, was built by Count Radbot of Altenberg, in 1020. It is situated about twenty miles from Zurich, on the road to Basle. The view from its summit ranges along the course of three rivers, and the eye takes in at a glance the whole Swiss patrimony of the Hapsburgs. Tradition relates that once when Rudolph was returning to this castle, mounted on a magnificent steed, he saw a priest, carrying the *viaticum*, standing on the bank of the stream, which the rains had swollen into a torrent. He rode up to him, leaped from the saddle, knelt to receive the benediction of the man of God, then offered him his horse to ford the river. The priest accepted it; Rudolph followed on foot to the couch of the dying man, and after the administration of the eucharist the priest returned the horse to the Count, who refused it. The priest insisted. Rudolph replied, "God forbid, my father, that I should be proud enough to use a horse which has carried my Creator! Keep it, then, as a pledge of my devotion to your holy order: it belongs henceforth to your Church." Ten years later this poor priest became chaplain to the Archbishop Werner of Mayence, and there was a rumor of Rudolph of Hapsburg's nomination for Emperor. Now the priest remembered how his seigneur had humbled himself before him, and in his gratitude he wished to return the honor he had received from him. His place gave him great credit with the electors. Rudolph obtained the majority, and was elected Emperor of the Holy Roman German Empire. The House of Austria was deprived of its Swiss territories by papal ban one hundred and fifty years after Rudolph's elevation; but it is believed that the ruin of the castle has again become the property of the Austrian Empire by purchase.

On the banks of the Töss, about forty-two miles from Zurich, on the road to Schaffhausen, rises the castle of Kyberg, inherited by Rudolph of Hapsburg, in 1264, on the failure of the line of the powerful counts of Kyberg, who flourished between the ninth and thirteenth centuries. Here Rudolph and other Emperors often resided, and here they kept the regalia of the empire. The castle passed from them in 1375, yet the Emperor of Austria still retains the title of Count of Kyberg. During the turbulent time of the Interregnum, Rudolph lived on his family estates, and defended to the utmost of his power all who required assistance against the oppression and injustice of the rapacious knights. He was for a long time the protector and governor of Zurich and Strasburg, and of the towns situated at the foot of the Alps of St. Gothard. He was respected by the Archbishop of Cologne, but more especially held in high esteem by Werner, of the princely House of Nassau, Archbishop of Mayence. On one occasion when this prelate took a journey to Rome to receive the pallium from the Pope, deeming the passage through the mountains of Switzerland unsafe, he requested Count Rudolph to escort him from Strasburg to the Alps, which was done with all the chivalric faith of a true knight. During the journey the archbishop became well acquainted with him, and when he took leave, said that he only wished to live long enough to be able in some degree to reward him for his services. When the electors assembled to elect the Emperor, Werner easily prevailed upon the Archbishops of Treves and Cologne to vote for Rudolph; and the



RODOLPHE DE HABSBOURG.

Burgrave of Nuremberg, Frederic von Hohenzollern, Rudolph's brother-in-law, won the secular votes by telling the princes that Rudolph had six daughters, and each prince could have a wife. Thus Rudolph became Emperor, and Werner remained always his faithful friend. Although Rudolph was neither so wealthy nor so powerful as many of the other princes of Germany, yet he could trace his descent from Charlemagne through his maternal ancestors. He had also been the companion and friend of the Emperor Frederic II., who in the year 1218 had stood god-father to him, and in one of his campaigns in Italy had conferred upon him the order of knighthood.

Rudolph, who little expected to be made Emperor, was engaged in a war with the city of Basle when Frederic of Nuremberg arrived at midnight to inform him of his election. At first he did not believe it, but when Henry of Pappenheim, Marshal of the Empire, arrived, Rudolph sent Frederic into the city with an offer of peace, which they accepted with gladness, and were the first to congratulate him. Rudolph went first to Frankfort, and then to Aix-la-Chapelle, where he was publicly crowned. When the princes came to render him their homage for their estates, it happened that the sceptre could nowhere be found. Rudolph removed the difficulty by taking a crucifix to perform the ceremony of enfeoffment, saying that "instead of the sceptre, a symbol by which the world was redeemed may well supply its place."

After his coronation he sent a proclamation throughout the empire, saying, "I now intend, by the blessing of God, to re-establish peace throughout this distracted country, and to take under my protection, against further tyranny, those who have been long oppressed." He then traveled through Franconia, Suabia, and along the Rhine. In Thuringia he destroyed more than sixty castles of robber-barons, and hanged more than thirty of their owners. He also destroyed many castles along the Rhine, and favored the growth of free cities, to which he gave charters.

Not only the petty princes, but the magnates also, were called upon to perform their duties. Ottocar, King of Bohemia, would not hear of subjection to the Emperor. He possessed, in addition to Bohemia, the Austrian estates, which, after the extinction of the ducal house of Babenberg, he had obtained partly by inheritance and partly by money and force of arms. Ottocar declared that he would never submit to be under one who had served under him, and whom he had regarded as his inferior. Rudolph summoned him to appear at the diet of Nuremberg in 1274, there to take the usual oath of allegiance. But Ottocar came neither to that nor to a second diet

at Würzburg ; and to a third, held at Augsburg in 1275, he only sent Bernard, Bishop of Seckau, as his representative, who was so daring as to begin a speech in Latin in the presence of the assembled princes, in which he attempted to prove that Rudolph's election was not legitimate. The Emperor interrupted him, saying, " My lord bishop, if you have any affairs to settle with my clergy, speak to them by all means in Latin ; but if you have aught to say to me, or of the privileges of my empire, speak, as is the custom, in the language of the country." The princes were so indignant that they were going to turn him out ; but the bishop saved them the trouble by departing of his own accord.

Ottocar was now put under the ban of the empire ; but he was so insolent that he ordered the heralds who brought him the declaration of the ban to be tied up at the gates of Prague. Rudolph immediately prepared to march against him ; he had given his daughter Katharine in marriage to Otho, son of the Duke of Bavaria, and his son Albert had married Elizabeth, daughter of the powerful Count Meinhard of the Tyrol. Ottocar expected that Rudolph would march directly towards Prague ; but instead of that he subdued the country as far as Vienna, where he was joined by Count Meinhard, who had forced his way through Carinthia and the Steiermark (Styria). Rudolph laid siege to Vienna, while Ottocar encamped on the opposite side of the Danube ; but the Emperor threw a bridge across the river, and Ottocar, alarmed, immediately offered peace. He was obliged to resign Austria, Styria, Carinthia, and Carniola. For the ratification of peace, a marriage was contracted between the Bohemian crown prince, Wenceslaus, and a daughter of the Emperor, and another between one of Rudolph's sons and a Bohemian princess. Ottocar then came to Rudolph's camp to obtain the enfeoffment of his estates. " The King of Bohemia has often laughed at my gray doublet," said Rudolph, " but to-day my gray doublet shall laugh at him." Accordingly, arrayed in plain attire, and seated upon the imperial throne, he received the King, who, glittering in gold and purple, was now obliged, in presence of all the bishops and princes, to supplicate for pardon on his knees, and to do homage for his kingdom of Bohemia and Moravia. Ottocar rode off in ill humor, and for very shame delayed his return to Prague. Rudolph by no means trusted the proud king, and therefore remained in Austria with his faithful Alsatian and Suabian knights. As soon as possible, Ottocar collected an army, and returned to give battle to Rudolph, who met him at Marchfeld, on the Danube, not far from Vienna, where a fierce battle took place, in August, 1278, in which Ottocar was defeated and lost his life. Ten years previous, Ottocar

had sent word to Charles of Anjou not to spare the lives of Conradino and his cousin Frederic, because he wanted Austria and Styria for himself. When peace was concluded, the marriage between the two royal houses was celebrated, and Bohemia was governed in trust for the children of Ottocar by the Margrave of Brandenburg.

Rudolph transferred Austria to his own house, as an imperial fief, with the consent of the German princes, because, they said, " it was only just that Rudolph should convey to his own children, if he thought fit, that principality which he had reconquered for the empire with so much sacrifice of his own blood." Accordingly, in August, 1282, at an imperial diet held at Augsburg, he took solemn possession thereof, and, in the presence of all the princes and nobles of the empire, he gave to his son Albert the countries of Austria, Styria, and Carniola ; but Carinthia he gave to Meinhard, Count of Tyrol, whose daughter his son Albert had married. He had intended to give his favorite son, Hartmann, who was drowned in the Rhine, the re-established kingdom of Burgundy. To his second son, Rudolph, he gave his estates in Hapsburg, Switzerland, and Suabia. Although the Emperor retained the title Roman, he never went to Italy, calling it " the lion's den,—many footsteps leading in, but none out." He chose Vienna for his residence. He did everything in his power to make the imperial title hereditary in his family, but the nobles thought Germany would cease to be an elective kingdom if the son succeeded his father, and refused their consent. He then left Frankfort, and went to Basle. He was growing infirm, and disease had fastened on him. His physicians constantly attended him the last year of his life. One day while he was sitting at the chess-board, they announced to him the near approach of his death. " Well, then," he said, " let us away, my friends, to Speyer, to the tomb of the kings." He did not, however, reach Speyer, but died at Germersheim, September 30, 1291, aged seventy-four. He was buried in the cathedral of Speyer.

His first wife was Anna of Hochberg, mother of Albert I. ; his second was Agnes of Burgundy.

ADOLPH OF NASSAU. A.D. 1292.

"*Præstat vir sine pecunia, quam pecunia sine viro.*" (Better a man without money than money without a man.)



ADOLPH DE NASSAU.

Counts of Nassau were with Frederic Barbarossa when he conquered Milan. Two counts of Nassau were chosen ambassadors by him to Constantinople, with the Bishop of Münster and the Count of Diez, all of whom were thrown into prison by the treacherous Greek Emperor, until Frederic liberated them, in 1189. They, too, were among the knights who, under Frederic of Suabia, founded the Teutonic Order of Knights, for the benefit of their countrymen during the crusades.

THE founder of the house of Nassau was Otho of Laurenburg, brother of the Emperor Conrad I., whose castle of Laurenburg overlooked Diez. A count of this name built a castle, in 1101, on the summit of a conical rock overlooking the river Lahn. The hamlet at its base was called the Nassen Au (moist meadow), from which the castle took the name of Nassau. In the thirteenth century the family divided into two branches, from the elder of which the present Duke of Nassau is descended, while the younger was represented by the famous William the Silent, Prince of Orange, from whom the present king of Holland is descended.

ADOLPH OF NASSAU.

The counts of Nassau held their lands as fiefs of the Elector of Treves and the Palatine of the Rhine, and numbered among their vassals two hundred and eighty-nine rich and noble families. Eight archbishops of this family filled the cathedral chair of Mayence between the thirteenth and sixteenth centuries; and among the archbishops of Treves there were four, viz.: Diether of Nassau, brother of the Emperor Adolph; the bold Kuno von Falkenstein, more of a knight than a priest; his nephew Werner von Falkenstein-Königstein, who brought the domains of Limburg into the jurisdiction of Treves,—Limburg, in whose territories stand the ruins of *Hohen-Syburg*, the old castle of Wittekind, the Saxon chief, conquered by Charlemagne; and Richard von Greiffenclau, whose adversaries were Franz von Sickingen and Hartmann von Cronberg.

Count Adolph of Nassau was born in the year 1250. He received a careful education, could read, write, and speak German, French, and Latin, which, in the thirteenth century, were considered as great attainments. He was skilled in knightly exercises, and was taken by his father to the court of the Emperor Rudolph to complete his education. He soon attracted the attention of the Emperor, who appointed him to the honorable office of president of the Imperial Court, which was held at that time in Nuremberg, and the writers of that city were loud in his praise in regard to his knowledge of art and architecture as displayed in the building of various churches in that city. His intelligence, knowledge, and experience, in all probability, caused him to be elected Emperor.

After the death of his father, Walram II., he returned to take possession of his inheritance in Nassau. The most celebrated of his battles, or rather that in which he took part, was led by the Archbishop of Cologne, Siegfried of Westerburg, Count Reinald of Gueldres, Henry of Luxemburg, and Adolph of Mons, against John of Brabant. Adolph of Nassau was drawn into this feud as countryman and kinsman of Archbishop Siegfried. The strife, which lasted some time, was at last ended by a bloody battle at Woringen in 1289, in which John of Brabant gained the victory. The Count of Luxemburg was killed; the archbishop, the Count of Gueldres, and Adolph of Nassau were taken prisoners. The latter had killed five officers in the battle with his own hand. Brought before the duke and asked by the conqueror who he was, he replied, "I am the Count of Nassau, a lord of no very great territory; but who, then, art thou?" The duke answered, "I am the Duke of Brabant, with whom thou hast so long fought, and whose five brave knights thou hast killed." Undismayed, Adolph answered,

"Then I wonder much thou didst escape my sword ; I drew it expressly against thee, and to kill thee with it was my greatest desire." Honoring his frankness, John of Brabant freed him without ransom, loaded him with presents, and proffered him his friendship.

After the death of the Emperor Rudolph, the seven electors of the empire, the ecclesiastics of Mayence, Treves, and Cologne, and the four secular princes of Bohemia, Saxony, Brandenburg, and the Palatinate, elected Adolph of Nassau, because he was neither powerful nor wealthy enough to excite their jealousy. The Elector of Mayence, Gerhard von Eppstein of Nassau (nephew of Archbishop Werner, the friend of the Emperor Rudolph), exerted all his influence to elect Adolph, thinking that because he was his relative he could make use of him for his own purposes ; but when he found that he could not, he did all in his power to injure him. Adolph was crowned by Siegfried, Archbishop of Cologne, at Aix-la-Chapelle, June 24, 1292. He made many mistakes in trying to follow in the footsteps of Rudolph, besides endeavoring to aggrandize his own house. It was at this time that Albert the Base ruled in Thuringia, and abandoned his excellent wife, Margaret, daughter of the Emperor Frederic II., in order to marry Cunigunde of Isenburg. The unhappy mother, in the anguish of separation from her children, bit the cheek of her son Frederic, who from this circumstance is called in history, "Frederic with the bitten cheek." The unnatural father sold the hereditary estates of his two sons to the Emperor Adolph. But when Frederic and Dietzmann grew up they fought bravely for their inheritance, and Adolph was forced to restore a portion of their lands. Gerhard of Mayence instigated the Germans, who were angry at Adolph's treatment of the sons of Margaret of Thuringia, to depose Adolph, and Albert of Austria was elected in his stead. This was the first time that the electors dethroned an Emperor of their own accord. The two rival sovereigns appealed to arms, and met at Göllheim, near Worms, where, in 1298, the decisive battle was fought. Adolph was completely overthrown, and fell in the contest mortally wounded, by the hand—as some say—of Albert himself.

Adolph was buried at Speyer. His wife was Imagina of Limburg. His sons, Robert, Gerlach, and Walram, succeeded him in Nassau.

Archbishop Gerhard of Mayence gained nothing by opposing his cousin Adolph, for he met with severe treatment from the Emperor Albert, who was not disposed to consult him in everything. And although Gerhard menacingly said "that he had yet more Emperors in his pocket," Albert very soon brought him to terms, and obliged him to sue for mercy.

ALBERT I., ALBRECHT DER ERSTE. A.D. 1298-1308.

"Fugam victoria nescit." (Victory knows not flight.)

ALBERT, son of the Emperor Rudolph, was crowned at Aix-la-Chapelle in 1298. After his father's death, Austria and Styria revolted; but Albert, having vigorously crushed the insurrection, had the audacity to assume the insignia of the empire without waiting for the decision of the diet. This violent measure decided the electors to choose Adolph of Nassau. Disturbances in Switzerland, and a disease which cost him the loss of an eye, now made him more humble. Albert, after the defeat and death of Adolph, feeling that he might freely display magnanimity, voluntarily resigned the crown which had been recently conferred upon him, and, as he had anticipated, was unanimously re-elected. But Pope Boniface VIII., whose inauguration in 1294 had been distinguished by great pomp,—the Kings of Hungary and Sicily holding the reins of his horse as he proceeded to the Lateran, and, with their crowns upon their heads, serving him at table,—denied the right of the princes to elect Albert, declaring himself the only true emperor and legitimate king. He therefore summoned Albert to appear before him to ask pardon and do penance, at the same time forbidding the princes to acknowledge him, and releasing them from their oath of allegiance. Albert,



ALBERT I.

with his usual intrepidity, defied his Holiness, formed an alliance with Philip the Fair of France, secured the neutrality of Saxony and Brandenburg, invaded the electorate of Metz, and forced the archbishop to break off the alliance with Boniface and to form one with him for the next five years. The Pope, alarmed at his success, entered into negotiations with him, and Albert, whose duplicity and unscrupulousness equaled his courage, suddenly dissolved his alliance with Philip, admitted the Western Empire to be a papal grant, and promised upon oath to defend the rights of the Romish court whenever he should be called upon. As a reward, Boniface gave him the kingdom of France, and excommunicated Philip, whom he declared to have forfeited the crown; but the latter severely chastised the Pope for his insolence in daring to give away what was not his own. In the following year, Albert made war unsuccessfully against Holland, Zealand, Friesland, Hungary, Bohemia, and Thuringia.

RISE OF SWITZERLAND.

Under the weak reign of Charles the Fat, Switzerland was lost to the Franks. The northern part came into the possession of the Duke of Allemania, which began then to be called Suabia, and thus became part of the German Empire, while the southern part belonged to Burgundy. During the invasion of Germany by the Hungarians, many towns, as St. Gall, Basle, Zurich, and Lucerne, were fortified, and rose into importance. During the reign of the Saxon Emperors, the country was mostly held as fiefs by the vassals of the empire, in particular by the bishops and abbots, the counts of Hyburg (Zurich), Hapsburg (Aargau), Lenzburg (Aargau), Rapperswyl (St. Gall), and Toggenburg (St. Gall); later, also, by the Count of Savoy and the Duke of Zähringen. Many of these noble families became extinct during the crusades, and the prosperity of the towns rose still higher, Berne and Freiburg even becoming free cities of the empire. The three ancient cantons of Schweiz, Uri, and Unterwalden, whose inhabitants are believed to have descended from emigrants from Sweden, and which had never been conquered, were only under the protection of the Emperor, whose rights he guarded by a *vogt*, first a count of Lenzburg, and afterwards a count of Hapsburg. The elevation of Rudolph of Hapsburg to the imperial throne of Germany, and his conquest of Austria and other possessions of Ottocar of Bohemia, greatly increased the influence of the House of Hapsburg in Switzerland.

Albert sought to incorporate the Swiss with Austria, and proposed that they should renounce their connection with the empire and place

themselves under the protection of his powerful house. They refused the Emperor's proposal, and he, in turn, permitted and encouraged the intendants to oppress the people and lay upon them severe and cruelly unjust exactions. Albert appointed two *vogts*,—Hermann Gessler of Bruneck, a haughty, overbearing noble, who dwelt in a strong fortress, or castle, near Altorf, in Uri, and Beringer of Landenberg, who dwelt at the castle of Sarnen, in Unterwalden. These governors treated the little-known and obscure mountaineers with such derision, contempt, and cruelty that three patriotic and noble-minded Swiss—Werner Stauffacher of Schweiz, Walter Fürst of Uri, and Arnold of Melchthal, in Unterwalden—met every night at Rütli, a small meadow in a lonely place between high rocks on the banks of Lake Lucerne, and proposed to unite with their friends in throwing off the yoke of their governors. On the night of Wednesday before Martinmas, in 1307, each brought with him ten fellow-patriots, and, after recounting their grievances and forming plans for their freedom, the three leaders swore to God, “before whom kings and people are equal, to live and die for their country; no longer to suffer, but commit no injustice; to respect the rights and property of the Count of Hapsburg; to do no harm to the imperial bailiffs, but to put an end to their tyranny.” The others also took the oath to free themselves like honorable men.

Meantime, Gessler was shot by William Tell of Uri, son-in-law of Walter Fürst; Landenberg was to be driven from the country. On New Year's morning, 1308, as the count was going from his castle to attend mass at Sarnen, he was met by twenty of his retainers, with calves, goats, sheep, fowls, and hares, which they were bringing as their customary New Year's gift for his acceptance. The count spoke pleasantly as he passed, and requested the men to take the animals into the court of the castle. No sooner had they entered, than, blowing their horns, each man drew from his doublet a steel blade, and fastened it on the end of his Alpine-stick, while thirty more of their countrymen of Unterwalden rushed down the hill through the forest of Erlen, took possession of the castle, and made the whole garrison prisoners. Landenberg, on hearing the tumult, and learning the cause, fled towards Alpnach, but was pursued and taken; but as the confederates had agreed to shed no blood, they made him swear to leave Switzerland and never return to it. Many other castles were captured and demolished; and on Sunday the 7th of January, the Swiss met, and again pledged themselves to the ancient oath of confederacy, the anniversary of which still continues to be the great national holiday of the Swiss.

The expulsion of the imperial bailiffs required Albert's presence in

Switzerland. — The day before his departure, his nephew, John of Suabia, Rudolph's son, asked to be put in possession of his estates in Suabia, which had long been withheld from him. The Emperor spoke to an attendant, who left the room and returned with a crown of flowers, which he placed on John's head, saying that was more befitting him than the government of his estates. John snatched it off his head, trampled it under his feet, and went away in a rage.

The next morning the Emperor seeing a man in full armor ride up by his side, asked his name. "I am John of Suabia," he replied. "I wish to accustom my head to the helmet before it wears the crown." John, with four others, had conspired to take the life of the Emperor, and assassinated him on the way to Rheinfelden. When the army reached the river Reuss, Albert crossed in a boat with the conspirators, and seated himself under a tree, to watch his troops as they crossed. As he took off his helmet, and threw his cuirass at his feet, John seized the opportunity to run him through the throat with his lance, Robert de Balm stabbed him in the heart, and D'Eschembach struck him on the head with his battle-axe. Then the assassins fled. A poor woman passing by tried in vain to stanch the wounds, and the Emperor died in her arms. Zurich and three of the neighboring cantons refused a refuge to John, the parricide, and he made his way along the Reuss to its source, whence he crossed over the Alps into Italy. He was afterwards seen in Pavia, disguised as a monk. He then went to Venice, and was never heard of afterwards. D'Eschembach lived thirty-five years in a secluded spot in Würtemberg. Robert de Balm was taken, broken on the wheel, and, while still living, exposed to birds of prey. His wife remained with him, kneeling near the wheel, while he spoke to her, exhorting and consoling her, until he drew his last breath. Conrad de Tegelsfeld disappeared, and died none knew where or how.

Leopold of Austria and Agnes of Hungary took it upon themselves to avenge their father's death. Sixty-three knights, relatives of the assassins, were beheaded. Agnes, who was present at their execution, stood so near that when their heads fell an attendant told her that the blood might soil her dress. She replied, "That matters not; I would bathe myself in their blood with more pleasure than in the dews of May." After the execution, Agnes took the forfeited estates of these knights and built the rich convent of Königsfelden on the very spot where her father was killed. She had the tree rooted up and made into a chest for her own use. The high altar was built over the place where the tree had stood, and her father's tomb was built beneath it. Here were also buried his wife, Elizabeth of Tyrol, Leopold, who fell at Sempach,

the sixty knights who were beheaded, many of the relatives of the family, and Agnes. The Emperor Albert's remains were afterwards removed to Speyer, and, in 1770, those of the Hapsburgs were carried to Austria.

Queen Agnes spent the greater part of her life in this convent,—entering it when she was twenty-seven, and dying at the age of eighty-four. Penance, prayer, and almsgiving could avail but little to stifle the qualms of a guilty conscience; and it is recorded that a pious hermit, to whom she had applied for absolution, replied to her, "Woman, God is not to be served with bloody hands, nor by the slaughter of innocent persons, nor by convents built by plunder of orphans and widows, but by mercy and forgiveness of injuries." Albert's wife was Elizabeth of Tyrol. He left five sons and five daughters.

CONTEMPORARIES OF RUDOLPH OF HAPSBURG, ADOLPH OF NASSAU, AND ALBERT I.

During the reign of these last three Emperors, England was making progress under Edward I., surnamed *Longshanks*; and the laws of the realm obtained so much order and precision during his time that he has been called the *English Justinian*. He conquered and annexed Wales to England. His wife, Eleonora of Castile, surnamed the Faithful, was the only child of Ferdinand of Castile and Joanna of Ponthieu, who had once been betrothed to his father. Alphonso, her half-brother, invaded Guienne, and was defeated by Henry III. Henry, who was always more willing to promote a festival than to continue a fray, luckily remembered that Alphonso had a fair young sister to dispose of, whose age would just suit his heir. Prince Edward was fifteen, and Eleonora some years younger, when they were married at Burgos, in 1254. They then traveled through France to England, after which Eleonora returned to Bordeaux to finish her education; while Edward led the life of a knight-errant, haunting tournaments wherever they were given, until the violent dissensions between the barons and his father began. Eleonora returned to England and lived in the Savoy. She accompanied Edward on his crusade to the Holy Land, then to Wales; and after that country was conquered, on her way to join her husband, who had marched against Scotland,* she fell ill and died, at the age of forty-seven. All the affairs of Scotland were obliterated from the mind of the great Edward by the acute sorrow he felt at the death of Eleonora. For thirteen days he journeyed with her corpse, and at every stage where the royal bier rested he vowed to erect a

* William Wallace and Robert Bruce were then the great heroes of Scotland.

cross to the memory of his *chère reine*, as he passionately called her (*Charing* Cross, a corruption of *chère reine*, has lately been restored in London). Walsingham says of her, "To our nation she was a loving mother,—the column and pillar of the whole realm. She was a godly, modest, and merciful princess. The English nation in her time was not harassed by foreigners, nor the country-people by purveyors of the crown." Wax tapers burned around her tomb in Westminster Abbey for three hundred years, when the Reformation extinguished them. Of the thirteen children of this family, only two reached middle age, —Edward Caernarvon and Mary the Nun. Edward's second wife, Marguerite of France, daughter of Philip the Bold, was carefully educated by her mother. She lived happily with her husband, and was the first queen-consort who ever ventured to stand between a mighty Plantagenet and the objects of his wrath. After Edward's death, in 1307, she lived in retirement at Marlborough Castle, spending her magnificent dower in acts of charity. She died at the age of thirty-six. While she lived, her niece Isabella, wife of Edward II., led a virtuous and respectable life. Her children were Thomas, Earl of Norfolk, from whom the Howards are descended, Edmund, Earl of Kent, and Eleonora.

In France, *Philip III.*, surnamed *the Bold*, because when his mother was in Egypt and frightened by the Saracens, he tried to reassure her, saying that he was not afraid of them. Philip was in some respects like his father. He was pious, liberal, and just, but was much inferior to him in intellect. His subjects were prosperous and happy during his reign, and the French esteem him as one of their best kings. His first wife was Isabella, daughter of James I., King of Aragon, and of Yolande of Hungary. They were married at Clermont, in 1262. St. Louis took his sons with him on his last crusade, and Isabella accompanied her husband. Her father-in-law, when dying, recommended Philip to return to France immediately. Philip was detained in Sicily* by weakness, from the effects of the plague which he had caught in Tunis, as well as by the illness and death of members of his family. Thus the new king returned to France, in 1271, with the remains of his father; the queen, Isabella, his wife; the King of Navarre, his brother-in-law; Alphonso, his uncle; and Jane, Countess of Toulouse, his aunt. Isabella was the mother of four princes: Philip the Fair, who succeeded

* The Sicilian Vespers took place during the reign of Philip the Bold, on Easter-day, 1282. The tolling of the bell for vespers was the signal to begin. The Sicilians rushed upon the French, and in the short space of two hours but *one Frenchman* was left upon the island. His life was spared on account of his extraordinary virtue.

to the throne; two others, who died young; and Charles de Valois, who was the royal branch from which thirteen French monarchs sprang.

These were the times when what were called "Trials by the judgment of God, ordeals, and judicial combats" were practiced. The ordeal existed throughout Europe in the Middle Ages, under the sanction of law and of the clergy. The most prevalent kinds of ordeal were those of *fire*, *water*, and the *wager of battle*. The accused had to carry a piece of red-hot iron for some distance in his hand, or to walk nine feet barefoot and blindfolded over red-hot plowshares. The hand or foot was bound up, and inspected three days afterwards; if the accused had escaped unhurt, he was pronounced innocent; if otherwise, guilty. The *wager of battle* was the natural accompaniment of a state of society which allowed men to take the law into their own hands. The challenger faced the west, the challenged person the east; the defeated party, if he craved his life, was allowed to live as a "*recreant*"; that is, on retracting the perjury which he had sworn to. In England, it seems to have been continued till the middle of the thirteenth century. On the Continent, it was, generally speaking, abolished rather earlier; although as late as 1498 we find the truth of Savonarola's doctrine put to the test by a challenge between one of his disciples and a Franciscan friar, to walk through a burning pile.

The second wife of Philip the Bold was Mary, daughter of Henry III., Duke of Brabant, and Alice of Burgundy. Mary is represented as being equally beautiful and intelligent. Philip was much attached to Mary, and her combined advantages of personal beauty and intellectual talent rendered her so attractive that he invariably gave her admission in the councils of state. She had three children by Philip: Louis, Count d'Evreux, and two daughters, both of whom were queens; one married Edward I. of England, and the other, Rodolph, Duke of Austria and King of Hungary.

Philip IV., the Fair, succeeded his father in 1285. He made war against England, oppressed the Flemings, quarreled with Pope Boniface VIII., and united with Pope Clement V. to destroy the Knights Templar, whose immense possessions had excited his cupidity. Philip managed to procure the election of Bertrand de Got (Clement V.), a native of Gascony, devoted to the interests of France and to the papal chair. He removed the papal see to Avignon.* Philip

* By order of Philip the Fair, Pope Clement V. went to reside in Avignon in 1309. The Popes gained possession of Avignon on the strength of a grant made by Joanna of Naples, who was also Countess of Provence, in 1348, when she was yet a minor, for which

married Jane, who became heiress of Navarre through the death of her brother Thibault, whose governor, while amusing him by tossing him backwards and forwards to the nurse, let the child fall from a high balcony, and he was killed on the spot. The governor in despair stabbed himself, and fell dead upon the body of his young master. Jane was married to Philip in 1284, at the age of fifteen, and Philip the Bold bestowed great attention on the education of his daughter-in-law, who profited much by the careful instruction she had received. She became an enthusiastic patroness of the fine arts, which she cultivated with success. Endowed with superior genius and rare talents, she founded the celebrated College of Navarre, at Paris, and munificently remunerated the professors whom she established in it. She also built the town of Puente la Reyna, in Navarre, an almshouse at Château Thierry, and several other places of public utility. In 1299, she accompanied her husband in his expedition against Flanders. The king had previously sent fifty thousand men under a skillful general, who, despising them as shop-keepers, did not take sufficient precaution, and was defeated with such terrible loss that the Flemings, after the battle, collected on the field four thousand golden spurs, of the kind worn only by knights. When Philip went against them in person, they in their turn were defeated. The Flemings, by no means daunted, shut up their shops and, assembling in a vast multitude, marched boldly up to the French army. The king, amazed at the sight of so numerous an army collected in so short a time, exclaimed, "Shall we never have done? I verily believe it rains Flemings!" His astonishment increased when their heralds appeared, offering instant battle or an honorable peace. Philip was wise enough to choose the latter. In the entertainments that were given at Bruges to the king and queen, Jane saw, with astonishment and mortification, that the ladies were magnificently attired in valuable stuffs, and covered with diamonds. "I thought," said she, "that I should have appeared here as the only queen; but I find six hundred women who, by the richness of their apparel, can dispute that title with me." Jane was the mother of

she was to receive eighty thousand crowns in gold; but it was never paid. When Joanna was driven from Naples as an accomplice in the assassination of her husband, the young Andreas of Hungary, she took refuge in Provence, and went to Avignon to throw herself at the feet of Pope Clement VI. When she left that city to return to her Italian kingdom, she was declared innocent of the crime of which she had been accused, and furnished with a dispensation to marry her cousin and lover, Louis of Tarentum, the principal instigator of the assassination, and Avignon belonged to the Pope. Six Popes after Clement V. were obliged to reside at Avignon. This was called their *Babylonish Captivity*, as it lasted near seventy years.

three kings of France,—Louis X., Philip V., and Charles IV. She had also one daughter, Isabella, who married the weak and unfortunate Edward II. of England.

TOURNAMENTS AND JOUSTS.

"Impartial taste," says Gibbon, "must prefer a Gothic tournament to the Olympic games of classic antiquity. Instead of the naked spectacles which corrupted the manners of the Greeks, the pompous decoration of the lists was crowned with the presence of chaste and high-born beauty, from whose hands the conqueror received the prize of his dexterity and courage. The skill and strength that were exerted in wrestling and boxing bear a distant and doubtful relation to the merit of a soldier; but the tournaments, as they were invented in France, and eagerly adopted both in the East and West, presented a lively image of the business of the field. The single combat, the general skirmish, the defense of a pass or castle, were rehearsed as in actual service; and the contest, both in real and mimic war, was decided by the superior management of the horse and lance." The origin of tournaments is uncertain. Von Hammer, with others, derives them from the Arabians, but all historical monuments tend to show their Teutonic origin. They reached their full perfection in the ninth and tenth centuries, and first received the form in which they are known to us from the French. Geoffrey de Preuilly, a French nobleman, first collected the rules of tourneying, in 1066, which we find to have been received in other countries in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries. It is said that the first great tournament in Germany was held at Magdeburg, in 1066. Tournaments were introduced into England soon after the Norman conquest.

Jousts differed from tournaments in being single combats between two knights, while tournaments were performed between two parties of cavaliers. Jousts were of two sorts,—the *joute à l'outrance*, a mortal combat, and the *joute à plaisir*, or joust of peace. The weapons used for both tournaments and jousts were lances with the points removed, and swords blunted or rebated. The tilting armor was of a light fabric, and generally adorned with some device of a lady's *favor*,—a scarf, a veil, a sleeve, or a bracelet,—with which the knight ornamented the point of his lance, the top of his helmet, or some part of his arms. The chief object of the knight in these contests was to maintain the superior excellence of his lady and to prove his own prowess. As he could not be known by his face, for this, as well as his body, was covered with steel, he selected some particular object, which he had painted on

his shield, when it was called a *device*, or bore it upon his helmet, in which case it was called a *crest*. Sometimes the knight wore over his armor a coat made of cloth of gold, the device embroidered on it in brilliant colors: hence the term coat of arms. Lions, tigers, eagles, and other animals of superior courage and ferocity were great favorites. After the death of Henry II. of France, who was accidentally killed at a tournament, they began to fall into disfavor, and were but little practiced after the sixteenth century.

HERALDRY.

Arms may belong to individuals, to families, or to countries. Badges and emblems on shields and helms occurred in the earliest times. In Numbers, first chapter and fifty-second verse, the children of Israel are enjoined to pitch their tents, "every man by his own camp, and every man by his own standard." The poets of the Greeks and Romans speak of paintings and devices on shields and helmets. Xenophon says that the kings of the Medes bore a golden eagle on their shields; Suetonius asserts that Domitian had a golden beard for his coat of arms; and Tacitus says of the ancient Germans that they marked their shields with brilliant colors and bore standards before them in battle. Notwithstanding all this, heraldry is no older than the tournaments: this is corroborated by the following reasons. In the first place, we find no tomb or monument with escutcheons older than the eleventh century. The most ancient is that of Varmond, Count of Vasserburg, in the church of St. Emmeran, at Ratisbon. The shield is *coupé* of argent and sable; over it is a lion, with the words "*Anno Domini MX.*" On most of the other tombs, even of the eleventh century, no arms are found; and the use of them seems first to have become common in the twelfth century. The first Pope who can be proved to have had a coat of arms is Boniface VIII., who filled the papal see from 1294 to 1303. All the earlier papal arms are the fanciful inventions of later flatterers. On coins also, no armorial ensigns are found till the thirteenth century. The second proof of the assumed origin of coats of arms is the word *blazon*, which denotes the science of heraldry in French, English, Italian, and Spanish. This word has most probably its origin in the German word *blasen* (to blow the horn); for, when a new knight appeared at a tournament, the herald had to sound the trumpet, and, because all appeared with close visors, to proclaim and explain the bearing of the shield or coat of arms belonging to each. Because this was performed by the herald, this knowledge was called *heraldry*; and because, in doing so, he blew

the trumpet, it was called *blazoning the arms*. From the Germans this custom was transmitted to the French; for there is no doubt that tournaments were usual in Germany much earlier than in France. But the French carried to far greater perfection the tournament, and the blazon, or heraldry, connected with it, just as they did the whole system of chivalry. The French language prevailed at the court of the Norman kings in England, and hence we find pure French expressions in British heraldry.

The *device* is a motto expressed by means of a pictorial emblem. The motto proper originated in the emblem, a written inscription coming to be added to the pictorial design, with the view of rendering the meaning more explicit. Devices thus consist of two parts,—a pictorial picture, called the "*body*," and a motto in words, called the "*soul*." In the Middle Ages, devices in coat-armor came into regular and formal use, and chivalry employed them in its courtly expressions of devotion to the fair sex. They were used both as charges on the shield and as crests. The only respect in which the device differs from other heraldic emblems is, that it always has some specific reference to the history or circumstances or position of the bearer. As an example: Louis XIII. of France had a falcon as a device, with these words, "*Aquila generosior als*" (A more generous bird than the eagle), by which he meant to denote his own superiority to the Emperor, whose device was an eagle. Devices, moreover, were generally borne only by the individual who assumed them, and not by the other members of his family, or his descendants, like the crest or cognizance. On all festal occasions they figured on triumphal arches, on banners, and hangings. At a later period it became customary to work devices into buildings; friezes and stained windows were often covered with them.

HENRY VII., HEINRICH DER SIEBENTE. A.D. 1308.

"*Calicem vitæ dedisti mibi in mortem.*" (Thou hast given me the cup of life in death.*)

In the time of Otho the Great, Luxemburg was a strong fortress on the Alzette, and was ceded by the Archbishop of Treves to Count Sigfried, who was the first of the powerful counts of Luxemburg, whose descendant, Henry VII., was now to mount the imperial throne of Germany. Henry was a knight in the best sense of the term, renowned for his distinguished prowess in the lists, and generally respected for

* An allusion to the manner of his death.

his talents and generosity. After Albert's death, the German princes remained true to their principle not to choose several Emperors from the same house in succession, and as chivalric virtues, in their estimation, surpassed all others, they proposed Count Henry of Luxemburg, who was known to be a valiant knight; besides, he was the brother of the Elector of Treves, and the Elector of Mayence hated the Hapsburgs, and through their influence Henry was elected Emperor. Henry had the bodies of Adolph and Albert buried in the cathedral of Speyer, and put the regicides under the ban of the empire.



HENRI VII.

VII. on his accession, in 1306, Eberhard of Würtemberg appeared in full armor, with a suite of two hundred horse. Without dismounting, he proudly declared that he was nobody's vassal, and rode off again

* The thumb of his right hand was remarkably large.

without saluting the Emperor. The insupportable arrogance of these counts, and the public robberies they often permitted on the high-roads of traveling merchants, forced the citizens, with the assistance of the Swiss, to form the *Suabian alliance* of thirty-four cities.

Henry confirmed the Swiss in their rights, and freed them from dependence on Frederic the Handsome, the Emperor Albert's son. The Bohemians hated their King Henry. Ottocar's grand-daughter, Elizabeth, was left as the last survivor of the ancient royal race. In a spirit of hatred to the House of Hapsburg, which, after this princess, possessed the next claim upon Bohemia, the nobility gave this heiress in marriage to John, the son of the Emperor, and with her the House of Luxemburg obtained the crown of Bohemia.

Henry was now called into Italy to settle some difficulties, although the Italians had not recognized German authority for sixty-four years. He was crowned with the iron crown of Lombardy in Milan, and afterwards in the Lateran, at Rome,* in 1312. Henry's prudent conduct in Italy met with so much success that Dante hoped great things from him. Dante, the great statesman and greater poet, had, in his youth, been a Guelph; but when his native city—Florence—was divided into two hostile factions, the White and the Black,—*i Bianchi ed i Neri*,—he joined the Whites, who formed the moderate party and desired a compromise with the Ghibellines, and soon after he became a stout Ghibelline. But, unfortunately, Henry, who had placed Robert of Naples under the ban of the empire, marched against that king, and on his road to Sienna stopped at Buonconvento, where the chivalrous and honest Emperor was poisoned in the sacrament by a monk, and died in 1313. Henry was buried in his faithful city of Pisa. His first wife was Esther, daughter of a duke of Silesia; his second was Margaret of Brabant.

* He was crowned by the cardinals, Pope Clement V. being at Avignon.

FREDERIC THE HANDSOME, FRIEDRICH DER SCHÖNE.

A.D. 1314-1330.

"Beata morte nihil beatius." (A happy death is the greatest happiness.)



FREDERIC LE BEL.

FREDERIC THE HANDSOME, son of Albert I., and grandson of Rudolph of Hapsburg, was chosen by three electors, with the Archbishop of Cologne at their head, and Frederic was crowned at Bonn, with the insignia of the empire.

LOUIS THE BAVARIAN, LUDWIG DER BAIER. A.D. 1314-1347.

"Sola bona, quae honesta." (Only what is honest is good.)

LOUIS was the son of Louis the Severe, Duke of Bavaria, and of Matilda, daughter of Rudolph of Hapsburg. Louis was elected the day after Frederic's coronation, by the Archbishop of Mayence and his party, and crowned at Aix-la-Chapelle. Hence a new war broke out in Germany. The greatest number of towns, especially in Suabia, and the Swiss, were for Louis; but the nobility were mostly for Frederic of Austria. Moreover, Frederic had a powerful ally in his brother, the Archduke Leopold, called the "Flower of Knighthood," who was burning to avenge the honor of the House of Austria upon the Swiss. Accompanied with a numerous retinue of knights, he advanced towards the mountains of Schweitz, threatening to trample the boors beneath his feet, and carrying an abundant supply of ropes for the execution of their rebellious chiefs. The well-known heroism of the archduke had attracted the whole of the ancient nobility of Hapsburg, Lenzburg, and Kyburg, together with the Vogt of Landenberg and the male branches of Gessler's family, eager to avenge his death. The Swiss from Uri, Unterwalden, and



LOUIS V.

Schweitz, to the number of thirteen hundred, were led by Rudolph Redin, a venerable patriot. He showed them how they must occupy the heights of Morgarten and Sattel Mountain in order to prevent the enemy from gaining advantage by superior force. A band of fifty exiled Swiss joined them, and on the 16th of November, 1315, the knights, clad in complete iron armor, commenced the ascent of the mountains under the bright rays of the morning sun, and entered the pass, which soon became filled with the close ranks of the cavalry; the exiles, shouting aloud, rolled down from the heights of Morgarten huge fragments of rock in quick succession upon the enemy. Seeing confusion in the ranks of the horsemen, the thirteen hundred Swiss descended the Sattel Mountain and fell upon the enemy's flank, carrying swift execution with their iron-pointed clubs and halberds. The flower of the Austrian nobility fell, two of the Gesslers were slain, Landenberg was killed, and Leopold narrowly escaped from the vengeance of his pursuers. This victory, the Marathon of Swiss history, was gained in one hour and a half, over a force of twenty thousand well-armed men, by a party of thirteen hundred Swiss mountaineers, who now for the first time met an army in the field. Louis rewarded the Swiss by confirming their liberties.

A long war between the rival Emperors ensued, which was at length terminated by the great victory of the Bavarians over the Austrians at Mühldorf, or Amfingen, on the river Inn,—the most glorious and interesting event in the Bavarian annals. It was on the 28th of September, 1322, that one of the most sanguinary battles of the Middle Ages was fought between the entire chivalry of Austria and Bavaria. The shock of some fifty thousand steel-clad horsemen was fearful; the battle-field was covered with heaps of slain, men and horses, but the fury of the combatants did not relax, when, towards sunset, the Bavarian rear-guard, commanded by the Burgrave of Nuremberg, with banners spread, wheeled full in the flank of the astonished Frederic of Austria, and completed the rout. Frederic, falling with his steed, was carried a prisoner to Louis, the friend and companion of his youth. The Austrians lost twenty thousand warriors, and the imperial crown remained with Bavaria.

Here again the Austrians were too slow. Leopold with his Swabian chivalry was detained at the convent of Fürstenfelde, enjoying the strong wines of the monks, while the battle was at its height. His timely arrival would, no doubt, have turned the scale of fortune. The old Bavarian general, Siegfried Schwepperman, who commanded in chief, took advantage of this negligence to carry out the following

stratagem. It is related that the victorious Bavarian army after the battle were without any provisions, having merely a supply of eggs, which, on being distributed among them, left but one for each man. The Emperor Louis, on hearing this, exclaimed, "Well, give to every warrior his egg, but to the brave Schwepperman give two!" as a proof that to him alone was due the honor of the victory.

Frederic was imprisoned in the castle of Trausnitz, but was treated humanely. His brother Leopold and many other princes still carried on the war in his favor; and Pope John XXII., having excommunicated Louis for having taken part with the Duke of Milan against him, the Emperor went to the castle of Trausnitz and concluded a treaty with Frederic, in 1325, releasing him from captivity, on condition that he should return if he should prove unable to persuade his adherents to acknowledge the imperial title of the victor. Not succeeding in this object, Frederic kept his promise, notwithstanding the remonstrances of his brother and the Pope, and returned to Munich. Louis, appreciating this magnanimity in Frederic, and remembering their mutual friendship in early life,—they having grown up together,—resolved formally to share the empire of Germany with him. An alliance was formed publicly, in which it was agreed that they would "both conjointly bear the title of Roman-German Emperor, call and regard themselves as brothers, and in their dispatches and other documents their signatures and seals should be affixed alternately." Pope John, who knew nothing of the German character, and who considered such good faith unprecedented, wrote to King Charles of France, to whom it might appear equally novel, "This incredible example of friendship and confidence was confided to me on the best authority in a communication from Germany."

Frederic, however, did not long continue to take part in the government; for, greatly depressed by his misfortunes, he retired to Guttenstein, a beautiful castle in the Wiener Wald, southwest of Vienna, to which he was accompanied by his amiable wife, Elizabeth of Aragon, who had, during his imprisonment at Trausnitz, so wept on his account that she became totally blind. Here Frederic himself died, in 1330.

Louis, with all his faults, was an able and active monarch, a true Bavarian. He raised Munich to an imperial residence, revised the laws, encouraged agriculture and industry by abolishing the serfdom of the peasantry, and enlarged the privileges and municipal institutions of the towns. In his time was the era of chivalry, poetry, and art, which has been revived in the masterpieces of painting, sculpture,

and architecture now adorning Munich, the modern* Athens of Germany.

In 1327, Louis went to Italy, and was crowned at Milan and at Rome, though not by the Pope. He elevated Nicholas V. to the papal chair; but this arbitrary step aroused the people, and compelled him speedily to retire from Rome. John XXII., as well as his successors, continually endangered Louis's position by raising up enemies and rivals in Germany. King John of Bohemia showed himself hostile to the house of Bavaria, whose growing greatness he sought to oppose by every means in his power. This daring and adventurous prince traversed Europe incessantly on horseback like a courier, until he succeeded in getting his son Charles elected Emperor, in the year 1346; but he enjoyed no popularity while Louis lived.

Louis continued to strengthen his power, marrying his son Louis to Margaret Maultasch (with the large mouth), the heiress of Tyrol, and making him Margrave of Brandenburg; bestowing patronage where it would make him allies; and, having inherited Holland, Zealand, Friesland, and other possessions through his wife, Margaret of Holland, was enabled, in 1347, to prepare for another expedition, when he suddenly died while hunting, of apoplexy, or, as some thought, of poison. As he died under sentence of excommunication, it was some time before his remains were buried in St. Mary's Church, at Munich. He was the last Emperor excommunicated by the Popes. His first wife was Beatrice, daughter of a duke of Silesia; his second was Margaret of Holland.

CHARLES IV., KARL DER VIERTE. A.D. 1347-1378.

"Optimum est aliena insanis frui." (To make use of the follies of others is glorious.)

CHARLES IV., grandson of the Emperor Henry VII., was born at Prague in 1316. He was elected Emperor in the time of Louis the Bavarian; but Louis, partly by the great superiority of his talents, and partly by the support given him by the princes of the empire, who were especially jealous of the papal power, and who had within ten years adopted, at the diet of Rense, the most energetic measures against the claims of the Holy See, easily baffled the plans of the blind Bohemian, who threw himself into the hands of the Pope and the King of France, and caused his son, who was a man of considerable ability, to be educated in that kingdom.

Charles as well as his father was in the battle of Crécy; but as soon as he saw that the English archery had in fact won the day, he hastened from the field, leaving his gallant father and a handful of brave countrymen to die; the former because he would not outlive his honor, and the latter because they would not survive their king. Charles then succeeded to the throne of Bohemia, and in 1346 was chosen Emperor by five electors. Louis dying a little more than a year afterwards, he hoped to succeed without any opposition, when he learned that the Archbishop of Mayence, the Electors of Brandenburg and the Palatinate, and the Duke of Saxe-Lauenburg had assembled at Lahnstein, declared his election void, and had elected Edward III. of England, the conqueror of Crécy, and brother-in-law of the late Emperor. The English parliament, however, obliged him to decline it. They then elected Frederic the Severe, Landgrave of Meissen, and he refused the crown. Not discouraged, their next choice was Günther of Schwarzburg, a knight distinguished by his feats of arms, and in whose favor they gained over the Poles, the ancient enemies of the House of Luxemburg.



CHARLES IV.

GÜNTHER OF SCHWARZBURG. A.D. 1349.

(His motto is not known.)



GUNTHER DE SCHWARZBOURG.

Three miles from Rudolstadt are the ruins of the castle of Greifenstein, the birthplace of the unfortunate Emperor Günther of Schwarzburg. Five miles farther on in the winding valley is the castle of Schwarzburg. Sondershausen is a principality of Germany in Thuringia. Schwarzburg-Rudolstadt borders on Saxe-Weimar. Schwarzburg-Sondershausen is almost surrounded by the Prussian province of Saxony, which is principally composed of the cessions made by the kingdom of Saxony to Prussia, at the Congress of Vienna, in 1815. It is divided into three governments, Magdeburg, Merseburg, and Erfurt.

GÜNTHER, Count of Schwarzburg, was elected in 1349, by the adherents of Louis the Bavarian. He resolved, however, not to accept the crown unless the electors assured him that he ought to do so for "God's sake, and not for money or estates." He was elected at Frankfort, and set out with his army against Charles, who was encamped at Mayence. Being suddenly taken ill, he was obliged to be carried back to Frankfort, where he died in the monastery of St. John. It was said he was poisoned. He died before he was crowned. He was buried in the cathedral of Frankfort. Twenty counts of the empire were his pall-bearers, and the Emperor Charles and the electors attended his funeral. His wife was Elizabeth, Countess of Hohenstein.

CHARLES IV.

Charles was unanimously acknowledged after Günther's death, and set himself to accomplish by intrigue what the Hohenstaufens, his grandfather Henry, and Louis the Bavarian had clearly proved to him could not be effected by open violence. He was the first to introduce primogeniture into his family, and the Hapsburgs followed his example. He drew the Hapsburg army to his side by giving his daughter Catharine in marriage to Rudolph, son of Albert the Lame; and dissolved the Wittelsbach confederacy by wedding Agnes, daughter of the Count Palatine Rupert.

Charles gave his hereditary dominions wise laws and excellent institutions, and granted many privileges to the city of Frankfort. He did all he could to check the atrocious persecution of the Jews, and to mitigate the sufferings caused by a great earthquake, and by the pestilence called the "*black death*." He went to Italy, and was crowned at Milan in 1354, and Emperor, in Rome, by Pope Innocent VI., in 1355. In 1356 he issued the "*Golden Bull*," so called from the *golden seal affixed to it*, which sanctioned all the rights and privileges that had been usurped by the great vassals. The electors were seven, ranking in the following order:

I. The Archbishop of Mayence, as Arch-Chancellor of Germany. He possessed as sovereign prince the territories of Mayence on the Rhine and the Maine; Aschaffenburg, with a large tract on the Upper Maine, in Franconia; besides Marburg, Erfurt, Eichsfeld, Frizlar, and some fiefs on the Rhine and in Lorraine.

II. The Archbishop of Treves, as Arch-Chancellor of Burgundy, with an extensive territory on the Moselle.

III. The Archbishop of Cologne, as Arch-Chancellor of Italy, with the duchy of Westphalia.

IV. The King of Bohemia, as Arch-Seneschal.

V. The Count Palatine of the Rhine, as Arch-Sewer.

VI. The Duke of Saxe-Wittenberg, as Arch-Marshall (with the exclusion of the ducal line of Saxe-Lauenburg).

VII. The Margrave of Brandenburg.

The votes of the seven electors were forever united to their territories, which were considered as inalienable feudal possessions of the empire.

The *Golden Bull* also contained some provisions restraining the so-called *Faustrecht* (fist-law) or right of private redress; Frankfort was acknowledged to be the city where the Emperor should be elected, Aix-la Chapelle that where he should be crowned, and Nuremberg that where his first court-day should be held. Yet Charles was the

first to violate some of its provisions, by giving large bribes to have his son Wenceslaus elected to succeed him in the empire. It was said that Charles himself was elected Emperor at the instigation of Pope Clement VI., to whom he had taken an oath of humiliating submission at Avignon.

Charles got possession of Brandenburg for money, and added Silesia to the empire. Holland had reverted to Burgundy, and Artois and Flanders were given to Philip the Bold, son of King John of France, as a fief of the empire. He did all in his power for the aggrandizement of his family and the prosperity of his hereditary estates. His domestic and internal policy was wise, liberal, and beneficial. He converted Bohemia into a smiling garden. Prague became the capital of Germany, and he embellished this, his favorite city, with magnificent churches and palaces, and founded, in 1371, its celebrated university. He built the magnificent stone bridge across the Moldau, supported by sixteen arches and adorned with twenty-eight colossal statues of saints. This bridge unites the Hradschin with the old town, and the access to it is fortified with high and picturesque towers. On the commanding heights of the Hradschin stand the superb Gothic cathedral and the immense castle and palace of the Bohemian kings, and on the market-place, in the old city, the Carolinen university, with its rich library of Bohemian manuscripts, and the Gothic town-hall of that period.

Charles's erudition and knowledge of languages have often been praised, and he gave a proof of this last accomplishment by writing his own life in Latin.

His first wife was Blanche de Valois; his second, Agnes, Countess Palatine; the third, Anna of Silesia, the mother of Wenceslaus; the fourth, Elizabeth of Pomerania, mother of Sigismund and Jobst. His son Wenceslaus succeeded him in the empire, and he also willed him the kingdoms of Bohemia and Silesia. To Sigismund he gave the electorate of Brandenburg. Sigismund married the heiress of Hungary and Poland. His third son, Jobst, had Lusatia. In 1378 there were two Popes,—Urban VI., in Rome, and Clement VII., in Avignon. Two months after this division in the Church, Charles died, and was buried at Prague.

CONTEMPORARIES OF HENRY VII., FREDERIC THE HANDSOME, LOUIS THE BAVARIAN, AND CHARLES IV.

ENGLAND.

Edward II. came to the throne of England just one year before the Count of Luxemburg took the title of Emperor as Henry VII. During his reign England was distracted with civil wars, arising from the weakness of the king, the violence of the nobles, and the character of the queen. Edward was completely defeated by the Scots in the battle of Bannockburn, and afterwards taken prisoner by the queen and her favorite Mortimer, and cruelly murdered at Berkeley Castle. His wife was Isabella of France, and was a princess of higher rank, with the exception of Judith, than had ever espoused a king of England. She was little more than thirteen years old at the time of her marriage. The dowry given her by her father, Philip the Fair, was provided from the spoils of the hapless Knights Templar. The bridegroom was the handsomest prince in Europe, and the charms of the bride had obtained for her the name of Isabella the Fair. Who of all that royal company that attended their wedding could have believed this marriage would have been so unhappy, or that the bride would ever be called the "*She-Wolf of France*"? She died at the age of sixty-three, and was buried in the church where Roger Mortimer had been buried twenty-eight years previously, and, with characteristic hypocrisy, with the heart of her murdered husband on her breast.

Edward III. succeeded his father in 1327, and, though but fifteen years of age, soon displayed a brave and kingly character. He quelled the Scots at Halidon Hill, threw off the yoke of Mortimer and the queen-mother, though he always treated her with the greatest respect; and, after the death of the last descendant of the direct line of Hugh Capet, claimed France for himself in right of his mother. He defeated the French by sea and land,—at Sluys and Crécy,—and reduced Calais by a cruel siege. His son, Edward the Black Prince, distinguished himself at the battle of Crécy, where the old blind king, John of Bohemia, rode between two knights, the bridles of whose steeds were chained to his, and perished fighting valiantly for France. The Black Prince gained his spurs, and the crest of the slain Bohemian king, composed of three ostrich feathers, with the motto, "*Ich dien*,"—I serve,—was adopted by him in memory of the victory, and still continues to be borne by the Prince of Wales. It is said the English monarch first used gunpowder at this battle. The Black Prince also captured King John

of France, at the battle of Poitiers. This accomplished prince died in 1376, and grief for his death broke his father's heart. Edward III. became acquainted with his wife, Philippa of Hainault, when he, with his mother Isabella, took refuge at the court of Hainault. They were married at York, January, 1328. "Blessed be the memory of Edward III., and his queen Philippa, who first invented clothes," says a monastic chronicler, meaning to imply that by her advice the English first manufactured cloth. She established a manufacturing colony, from her native country, at Norwich, in the year 1335. Nor did she disdain to blend all the magnificence of chivalry with the patronage of the productive arts. At a period of her life which in common characters is considered girlhood, she had enriched one of the cities of her realm by her statistical wisdom. There was wisdom also in the grand tournaments she held at Norwich, which might be considered as exhibitions showing the citizens how well, in time of need, they could be protected by a gallant nobility. These festivals also displayed the defensive class and the productive class in admirable union and beneficial intercourse, while the example of the queen promoted mutual respect between them. Philippa's mother, too, was a wise and good woman, who loved peace and promoted the useful arts. In the first years of her marriage, Philippa had been the constant attendant of her husband in his campaigns. The annals of the year 1346 display her character in a more brilliant light, as the sagacious ruler of his kingdom and the victorious leader of his army. While Edward was battling in France, and her heroic boy, the Black Prince, then in his sixteenth year, won fame at the battle of Crécy, Philippa led an army against David of Scotland, and at the battle of Neville's Cross took him prisoner. It was owing to her intercession that the lives of the six patriotic citizens of Calais were spared. After this she turned her attention to working the coal-mines in Tynedale. It was an infallible result, that, wherever this great queen directed her attention, wealth and national prosperity speedily followed. Well did her actions illustrate her Flemish motto, *Ich wrude muche*,—I work much. Philippa had not the misery of living to see the change in the prosperity of her family. She died before the Black Prince. The close observer of history will not fail to notice that with the life of Queen Philippa the happiness, the good fortune, and even the respectability of Edward III. and his family departed, and scenes of strife, sorrow, and folly distracted the court where she had once promoted virtue, justice, and well-regulated munificence. Her sons were Edward the Black Prince, Lionel, Duke of Clarence, John of Gaunt, Edmund, Duke of York, and Thomas of Woodstock, Duke of

Gloucester. Her daughter Elizabeth (Isabella), princess royal, married the young Lord de Coucy, one of the hostages of King John of France. Mary married the Duke of Bretagne; Margaret married the Earl of Pembroke. Besides these, there were Joanna, who died of the plague, betrothed to Pedro the Cruel of Spain; Prince William, who died in his twelfth year; and Blanche of the Tower. Wickliffe, the morning star of the Reformation, as he has been called, came into notice in the disputes between Edward III. and the court of Rome relative to the homage and tribute exacted from King John. A monk came forward as the advocate of the Church, and Wickliffe wrote a reply, which made him favorably known at court, and procured him the patronage of John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster. Wickliffe also translated the Scriptures, wrote against the authority of the Pope, and the intrigues and encroachments of the mendicant friars,—that "*unbridled throng*," as Pope Gregory X. called them.

FRANCE.

In France, *Louis X.*, surnamed *Hutin* (Peevish), succeeded his father, Philip the Fair, in 1314. Louis found the treasury empty, and, in order to fill it, issued a proclamation offering freedom to all his serfs upon the payment of a certain sum of money by each. But the greater part preferred their money to their freedom. However, money must be had, and so the king forced them to be free whether they would or not. His father had taken a very effectual mode of raising the citizens, by admitting deputies from that class to the States-General, which until his time consisted only of nobles and prelates; and now the serfs were to be free. Louis's first wife, Margaret of Burgundy, led a shameless life, and was shut up in the abbey of Maubisson, where she died, in 1326. His second was Clemence of Hungary. Louis died shortly after this marriage, leaving one child, Jane.

The Salic Law was confirmed, and *Philip V.* succeeded his brother in 1316. His reign is remarkable only for an attempt to poison all the wells and springs in France, which was charged upon the Jews, who were subjected to the most cruel persecutions. Philip had married Jane of Burgundy while Count of Poitiers, and she, being intimate with Queen Margaret, soon fell into vice. Still, she lived on good terms with the king until his death, which occurred in 1322; but her widowhood is stained by crimes of the most revolting nature, which were enacted at her residence, the Hôtel de Nesle, from whose towers she precipitated into the Seine those who had had the misfortune to attract her attention, to prevent their recital of her infamy. As Philip left only daughters, he was succeeded by his brother, *Charles IV.*, surnamed

the Fair. His reign affords nothing worth mentioning, if we except the floral games established at Toulouse. Seven lovers of poetry issued a general invitation to all the poets of Provence, the successors of the old Troubadours, to meet at Toulouse on May-day, there to recite their poems. A violet of gold was given for the best poem, an eglantine for the best eclogue, and a pansy for the best ode. If any one took all three prizes he was dubbed a doctor of the *gay science*, as poetry was called. This institution remained until the Revolution of 1789. Charles married Mary of Luxemburg, daughter of Henry VII., Emperor of Germany, who was crowned with great splendor at Paris, in 1323, in presence of her brother, King John of Bohemia, and her uncle, the Archbishop of Treves. Mary died when only eighteen, and Charles married for his second wife Jane d'Evreux,—an advantageous union in regard to the kingdom of Navarre. Charles died three years after this marriage, leaving no male heirs, and the crown passed from the direct line of Hugh Capet to Philip, son of *Charles of Valois*. Edward III. disputed the claim of Philip VI. of Valois, invaded France, won the battle of Crécy, and besieged and captured Calais. Philip loaded the people with taxes, and forfeited their affection by his perfidious and cruel conduct. Philip married Jane of Burgundy, daughter of Robert II., Duke of Burgundy, and of Agnes, daughter of Saint Louis. The marriage took place at Sens, in 1313. Philip had a high opinion of her wisdom and talents, associated her in his administration, and joined her signature with his own in all his most important acts. She died of the plague, in 1348, aged fifty-five. She was sincerely loved and deeply regretted by her husband and the nation. She had five sons,—John, King of France, Philip, Duke of Orleans, and three others who died young,—besides a daughter, Mary, Duchess of Limburg. Jane was buried at St. Denis. Philip died in 1350; but before his death Dauphiny had been added to the crown of France. The last prince, having lost his only child, gave the province to France, on condition that the eldest son of the king should always bear the title of *Dauphin*. John, surnamed the *Good*, from his courage in war, succeeded his father at the age of forty. Having broken the truce with England, he was attacked by the Black Prince, defeated, and taken prisoner at the battle of Poitiers. The war of the peasantry, called *La Jacquerie*, occurred in his time, and Paris was blockaded by the King of Navarre. John, having been ransomed, surrendered himself afterwards for the misconduct of his sons, and died in London, in 1364. John's first wife was Bonne of Luxemburg, daughter of King John of Bohemia. The amiable disposition of this princess corresponded with her name,

and made her universally beloved. She died in 1349, before the accession of her husband to the throne. She left eight children,—Charles V., King of France; Louis, from whom some of the kings of Sicily sprang; John, Duke of Berri, father of Pope Felix V.; Philip the Bold, Duke of Burgundy; Jane, who married Charles the Bad, King of Navarre; Mary, Duchess of Bar; Margaret the Nun; and Isabella, who espoused Galeazzo Visconti, Duke of Milan.

Charles V., surnamed *the Wise*, controlled his armies without leading them in person. Edward III. of England used to say of him, that among all with whom he ever contended, Charles was the one who gave him the most trouble, though he never appeared against him. But Charles knew how to select good generals. Du Guesclin was his commander-in-chief. This valiant Breton was captured and taken to London with King John. One day at the court of Queen Philippa, the Black Prince proposed that Du Guesclin should name his own ransom, according to the etiquette of the times, adding that whatever sum he mentioned, be it small or great, he should be free. Du Guesclin said, "A hundred thousand crowns." The prince started at this immense sum, and asked Sir Bertrand "how he could ever expect to raise such an enormous sum?" "I know," replied the hero, "a hundred knights in my native Bretagne who would mortgage their last acre rather than Du Guesclin should either languish in captivity or be rated below his value. Yea, and there is not a woman in France now toiling at her distaff who would not devote a year's earnings to set me free; for well have I deserved of their sex. And if all the fair spinners in France employ their hands to redeem me, think you, prince, whether I shall bide much longer with you?"

Queen Philippa, who had listened with great attention to the discussion between her son and his prisoner, now spoke. "I name," she said, "fifty thousand crowns, my son, as my contribution towards your gallant prisoner's ransom; for though an enemy to my husband, a knight who is famed for the courteous protection he has afforded to my sex deserves the assistance of every woman."

Du Guesclin immediately threw himself at the feet of the generous queen, saying, "Ah, lady! being the ugliest knight in France, I never reckoned on any goodness from your sex, excepting from those whom I had aided or protected by my sword; but your bounty will make me think less despicably of myself."

During the reign of Charles the Wise the English lost all their possessions in France except Calais, Cherbourg, Bordeaux, and Bayonne.

Petrarch, who visited France soon after the surrender of Calais, in the

time of Philip of Valois, said "that the country appeared everywhere desolated with fire and sword; Paris looked forlorn and desolate, the streets being overgrown with weeds." Petrarch, on his second visit, saw the dauphin, now become king, and tells us that he was astonished at the cultivation of the dauphin's mind, the polished elegance of his manners, and the wisdom with which he conversed upon all subjects. Charles spared no expense to procure the best collection of books that could be had. The royal library of his father consisted of twenty volumes, and Charles increased it to the number of nine hundred. Charles sent Du Guesclin into Guienne to take possession of that country, where he made rapid progress. He had laid siege to a castle in Languedoc, and the governor agreed to surrender upon a certain day if he did not receive assistance in the interval. Du Guesclin died before the appointed time, and the governor was advised not to keep his agreement; but he declared that he would be as true to that honorable knight in death as that knight would have been to him in life. On the appointed day he marched, followed by the whole garrison, to the French camp, and placed the keys on the bier of the departed hero. His body was buried in the church of St. Denis, where none but the kings of France had hitherto been buried. Charles V. was poisoned by Charles the Bad, King of Navarre, and died from its effects in 1380, bequeathing to his son a peaceful succession, a rich treasure, and, above all, subjects thriving and contented. His wife was Jane, daughter of Peter I., Duke of Bourbon, and of Isabella of Valois. They were married in 1350, and crowned at Rheims in 1364. The king was devotedly attached to Jane, whose beauty made a great impression on the volatile Parisians. She bestowed a careful education upon her children, and conducted the affairs of government with so much prudence during the king's long and painful maladies that he pronounced her regent, with the Dukes of Burgundy and Bourbon, when his death should occur. In sickness and misfortune Jane was his consolation, as she had been the charm of his happier days; and her death, which took place before his own, caused him a deep and settled regret from which he never recovered. Jane died in 1377. She was the mother of nine children, only three of whom survived her,—Charles, who succeeded his father, Louis, Duke of Orleans, and Catharine.

Jean Froissart, who wrote the "Chronicles" of these times, was born at Valenciennes, in the year 1337. He was destined for the Church, and received a liberal education, but soon displayed a passion for poetry and the charms of knightly society. At the age of twenty, he began to write a history of the wars of his time, and traveled to

examine the theatre of the events he was about to relate. This first part of his "Chronicles" it took him three years to complete. He then went to England, where Queen Philippa received him with great favor, and in 1362 appointed him clerk of her chapel and secretary. Two years afterwards he visited Scotland, where he became the guest of King David Bruce. Everywhere the gay, poetical, quick-witted, and shrewdly-observant Frenchman was welcomed and honored. In 1336 he accompanied the Black Prince to Aquitaine and Bordeaux. He afterwards went with the Duke of Clarence to Italy, and was present with Petrarch and Chaucer at the marriage of this prince, at Milan, with the daughter of Galeazzo Visconti, and directed the festivities given by Amadeus VI. of Savoy in honor of the duke. Froissart's "Chronicles" embrace the events occurring between the years 1326 and 1400.

Froissart mentions the institution of the order of the Garter by Edward III., in 1344, which Selden says "exceeds in majesty, honor, and fame all chivalrous orders in the world."

Among those worthy of honorable mention in these times are *Eustace de St. Pierre*, who immortalized his name by being the first to offer himself as a victim to rescue his fellow-citizens of Calais; *Jane, Countess of Montfort*, who, after her husband was taken prisoner, defended herself and son with the greatest courage and ability. Jane could manage a war-horse as well as a knight; could fight by sea and land; knew how to order a battle, guard a city, make a treaty, and provide for the safety of an army; and the *widow Clisson*, whose husband, Oliver Clisson, had been invited by Philip of Valois to Paris, together with some other nobles of Brittany. Philip arrested them as soon as they arrived, under the pretext that they had held correspondence with the English, and beheaded them without any trial. This violation of justice made Edward III. renew the war, and the widow of Clisson, to avenge the murder of her husband, sold her jewels, fitted out three vessels, crossed the sea, landed in Normandy, took many castles, and set villages on fire. She was always found amidst the greatest dangers and horrors of the war, with a sword in one hand and a torch in the other, encouraging her people. She had a son twelve years of age, whom she had the satisfaction of seeing prove, when he was grown up, a warrior worthy of herself. The battle of Aurai, fought in 1364, in which he lost an eye, was gained, in a great measure, by his valor; and this battle decided the fate of the duchy of Brittany in favor of his friend, the young Count de Montfort.

It was in the reign of Edward III. that the business of the courts of

law began to be conducted in the English tongue. Until that period the French language had been used in all legal proceedings.

POLAND.

Poland owed to Kasimir, the Peasant King, her constitution, consolidation, and greatness; he united the duchy of Halitch with the kingdom in 1340, lightened the burdens of the peasants, and brought an admirable order into the administration of the kingdom. His nephew, Louis of Anjou, King of Hungary, followed him on the throne, and reigned until 1381. The beautiful Hedwig, youngest daughter of Louis, was then elected queen, and that virtuous princess, silencing the voice of her heart, generously gave her hand to the elderly heathen Duke Jagellon, in 1386, thus securing the unity of thirty millions of people, the wide extent and prosperity of glorious Poland.

SPAIN.

The Saracens still held the sovereignty of Granada, Andalusia, and Murcia; and against them the Christian kings of Castile, Aragon, and Navarre waged perpetual war.

ITALY.

In Venice, the Doge Gradenigo had introduced hereditary aristocracy and inscribed their names in the "golden book," and established the fearful Council of Ten, which contributed to the ruin of that magnificent city. Powerful families had the government of cities and principalities,—the *Visconti* in Milan, the *Gonzaga* in Mantua, the *Este* in Ferrara, the *Della Scala* in Verona, the *Carrara* in Padua, and others. In Rome, Nicholas Rienzi became celebrated by his attempts to restore the Roman republic. We find him first, in 1346, joining in a deputation to Pope Clement VI., at Avignon, to exhort him to bring back the papal court to Rome. The following year, in the absence of Stephen Colonna, the governor of Rome, the people conferred on Rienzi the title of *Tribune*, with the power of life and death, and all the other attributes of sovereignty. Colonna returned to Rome, but was obliged to leave, and many noble families were banished with him. Rienzi's friendship was solicited even by the King of Hungary and the Emperor Louis, and Petrarch became highly interested in him. The intoxication of supreme power betrayed him at length into extravagances, and he cited the Emperors Louis and Charles to appear before him and justify their pretensions. In 1348, he withdrew from Rome, on finding that he was losing the affections of the people, and went to

Naples, where he remained until 1350, when he took advantage of the jubilee to return secretly to Rome; but, being discovered, he withdrew to Prague. Soon afterwards he fell into the hands of Pope Clement at Avignon, who confined him three years in his castle. Innocent VI. released him, and sent him to Rome, to oppose another popular demagogue, Boroncelli. The Romans received Rienzi with great demonstrations of joy, and he recovered his former authority; but, after a turbulent administration of a few months, the nobles excited another sedition against him, in which he was massacred, October, 1354.

Pope Urban V. went to Rome, and, finding that the Visconti had encroached upon his domains, proceeded to bring them to terms. But his excommunication of the Visconti was unavailing, and his legates were actually forced to eat the bull of which they were the bearers,—lead, parchment, and silk together. This daring insult so terrified Urban that he returned to Avignon. Bands of soldiers, chiefly Germans and English, had been introduced into Italy, and employed by those princes who would pay them most for their services; but now the Visconti and Della Scala began to employ native condottieri.

The residence of the pontiffs at Avignon was quite injurious to the Holy See. The Ghibelline cities took advantage of their absence to invade and lay waste the patrimony of St. Peter. The revenues the Popes derived from Italy were very small; they resolved, therefore, to sell indulgences to the people more frequently than formerly, and required enormous prices to be paid for their bulls and letters of every kind. John XXII. regulated the fees of the apostolic chancery with much ability. At length Gregory XI. was encouraged to remove his residence to Rome, in 1376. After his death, fearing lest a Frenchman would be elected, who might return to Avignon, as soon as the cardinals were assembled to provide a successor the Roman people assembled, and with furious clamor demanded that an Italian be chosen. The terrified cardinals chose a Neapolitan, who took the name of Urban VI. This new pontiff, by his coarse manners, injudicious severity, and intolerable haughtiness, provoked the cardinals to withdraw to a town in the kingdom of Naples, where they elected Robert, Count of Geneva, under the title of Clement VII., alleging that Urban VI. was elected only in pretense, in order to quiet the rage of the citizens of Rome. Urban continued at Rome, and Clement went to Avignon. The cause of Clement was espoused by France, Spain, Scotland, Sicily, and Cyprus; the other countries of Europe acknowledged Urban as the true vicegerent of Christ. This division in the Church is called the great schism of the West.

PAINTERS.

Taddeo Gaddi, the favorite pupil of Giotto, Simone Memmi, and Andrea Arcagna, one of the artists employed in the decoration of the celebrated Campo Santo at Pisa, were the artists who flourished between 1300 and 1389.

We have spoken of Dante and Petrarch; it remains to mention Giovanni Boccaccio, the celebrated author of the *Decamerone*. He was born in Paris, in 1313, and was not only one of the most learned men of his time, but one of the most enlightened in his scholarship. He studied Dante closely, and formed an intimate friendship with Petrarch. In 1342 he was in Naples, where he composed many works. In 1373 he was appointed Dantean professor at Florence; that is to say, he was to deliver elucidatory lectures on the *Divina Commedia* of the great poet; but, his health failing, he resigned the office, and retired to his little property at Certaldo, where he died, in 1375, sixteen months after his friend Petrarch.

WENCESLAUS, WENZEL. A.D. 1378-1400.

"Morosophi moriones pessimi." (Learned fools are the worst fools.)

WENCESLAUS was crowned king of Bohemia when he was two years old; at six years he enfeoffed a duke, who kneeled before him at the command of his father. At the age of ten years he was married. Two years later, he was invested with the mark of Brandenburg, and made to take part in state affairs; and he was not quite eighteen when he succeeded his father on the imperial throne. Of the admonitions which the Emperor gave him shortly before his death, he disregarded the most important,—“Keep the Pope, the priesthood, and the Germans your friends.”

The lawless state of Germany at that period might have bidden defiance to the talents and spirit of the greatest ruler: how much more, then, to a Wenceslaus! Pride and cruelty were the predominant traits of his character, and his inclinations led him to low sensuality. Perhaps his conduct may be in part attributed to the consequences of an attempt to poison him, which was followed by a disease of the liver, attended by a burning thirst. Two circumstances rendered his situation particularly difficult. In the beginning of his reign, the schism in the Church, in consequence of the election of two Popes, had a very injurious influence on political affairs. From Rome and from Avignon

bans of excommunication were hurled against each other, and in their wrath each anathematized whole communities and countries that happened to adhere to his opponent. Long and vainly did the most upright and judicious men raise their voices against the destructive vices of their time, and all urged the assembling of a General Council; but Wenceslaus, whose business it was, as Emperor, to convoke such a council, had neither the will nor the energy to enforce it.

Fist-law was becoming universal, to which the Heilige Vehme, leagues, and confederacies opposed themselves. Wenceslaus, in the midst of his revelries and debauchery, looked supinely on these disorders, and seems to have secretly encouraged the great leagues of the cities, in order to weaken the power of the princes.

His wife, the Princess Joanna of Bavaria, a beautiful and virtuous woman, was condemned to endure alternately his fits of drunkenness, of ferocity, and of fondness, and her life was prematurely brought to a close by his cruelty and excesses. Her confessor, John of Nepomuck, was a good man, and endeavored by his religious instructions to strengthen her to endure her fate with patience and submission. Wenceslaus, in one of his fits of mad jealousy, sent for John and commanded him to reveal the confession of the Empress. The priest remonstrated, and represented that such a violation of his spiritual duties was not only treachery, but sacrilege. The Emperor threatened, entreated, bribed, in vain. The confessor was thrown into a dungeon and kept a few days in darkness and without food, and then again brought before the Emperor, but repelled his offers with mild but resolute firmness. Wenceslaus ordered him to be put to the torture. The unhappy Empress threw herself at her



WENCESLAS.

husband's feet, and at length by her prayers and tears obtained the release of the priest. A few days afterwards, the Emperor, perceiving him from the window of his palace, was seized with one of those insane fits of fury to which he was subject, and ordered his guards to drag him to his presence, and again repeated his demand, but received no reply. At a sign from their master the guards seized him, bound him hand and foot, and threw him over the parapet of the bridge into the waters of the Moldau, May 16, 1383.

From this time St. John of Nepomuck was honored in his own country as a martyr, and became the patron saint of bridges throughout Bohemia. In the year 1620, when Prague was besieged by the imperialists, during the Thirty Years' War, it was commonly believed that St. John of Nepomuck fought on their side; and on the capitulation of Prague, and the subsequent conquest of Bohemia, the Emperor Ferdinand and the Jesuits solicited his canonization; but the papal decree was not published till the year 1729.

Meantime, several towns and villages, subject to Duke Leopold of Austria, had joined an alliance with the Swiss cities on account of the avarice and oppression of the agents of the duke, and also because he had imposed taxes, contrary to stipulations made, on the Swiss frontiers, which checked their commercial intercourse. Duke Leopold, surnamed the Brave, nephew of Leopold who was defeated at Morgarten, and equal to him in heroism and arrogance, vowed he would chastise the whole of the inhabitants and destroy their offensive alliance. Accordingly, with a large force, he marched from Baden through Aargau by Sursee for Sempach, situated about ten miles from the city of Lucerne. On his arrival he found the confederates already occupying the heights, and ready to receive him. Unwilling to await the arrival of his foot-soldiers, and afraid that the cavalry would be thrown into confusion in a mountain engagement, he commanded all the nobles and knights to dismount, and, joining their ranks as closely as possible, he ordered them to rush forward and charge the confederates spear in hand. Baron Hasenberg, a veteran warrior, cautioned him by saying that "pride never served any good purpose, and they had better wait for their infantry." But he was only derided with the shout, "Der Hasenberg hat ein Hasenherz!"—Hasenberg has a hare's heart! Some of the nobles tried to persuade Leopold to keep in the rear, but he exclaimed, impatiently, "What! shall Leopold be a mere looker-on, and calmly behold his knights die around him in his own cause? Never! here on my native soil with you I will conquer or perish for my people!" Saying which, he placed himself at the head of his troops.

The mountaineers numbered about fourteen hundred men, from Lucerne and Waldsttten and other forest towns. This small force of brave men, seeing the duke and his knights dismount, fell on their knees to pray, as was their custom before an encounter, and then rushed upon the impregnable phalanx of shields; but not a man yielded to the shock. It was then that a knight of Unterwalden—Arnold von Winkelried—exclaimed, "I will open a path to freedom; protect, dear comrades, my wife and children." He then rushed forward, and, gathering in his arms as many lances as he could grasp, buried them in his bosom. Taking advantage of the gap thus made, the Swiss followed, and the enemy's ranks were broken. Duke Leopold and six hundred nobles were slain, and more than two thousand common soldiers. The conquerors founded masses for the souls of those who fell, foes as well as friends, and they are celebrated even now on the anniversary of the battle, which is a popular festival. A small chapel was erected on the spot where Leopold fell, and the names of the killed, both Austrians and Swiss, were inscribed on the walls, which also bear a rude fresco representation of the noble devotion of *Arnold of Winkelried*.

"He, of battle-martyrs chief!
Who, to recall his daunted peers,
For victory shaped an open space
By gathering, with a wide embrace,
Into his single heart, a sheaf
Of fatal Austrian spears."—WORDSWORTH.

This battle was fought in 1386. Another victory was won at Nfels, by Matthias am Buhl, the lands-captain, who hastily collected thirteen hundred men of Glarus, checked the career of six thousand Austrians, and, after eleven distinct charges, aided by volleys of stones and rocks rolled from precipices, repulsed the invaders with a loss of twenty-five hundred of their number. Eleven simple stones, inscribed 1388, set up in a meadow of Reutli, hard by, mark the spot. The anniversary of this fight is still celebrated in the canton of Glarus on the first Thursday in April.

Wenceslaus remained at Prague all this time, and when deputies were sent to him to request him to come to Germany and restore peace, he replied, "I do not know that I am bound to reconcile the estates, as I did not cause their quarrels; and I fear the fate of the wolf in the fable, who attempted to reconcile two quarreling rams."

The nobles of the empire, who were becoming impoverished, requested the Emperor to cancel by force all debts due to Jews, and he did so, on condition that fifteen per cent. of the debt should be paid

to him as legal protector of the Jews. In Bohemia, Wenceslaus was disliked on account of his preference of the Germans and his arbitrary spirit. His brother Sigismund, King of Hungary, and his cousin Jobst, Margrave of Moravia, were hostile to him; and thus originated, in 1394, a conspiracy of the Bohemian nobles, who surprised him, and kept him prisoner; but, bribing his jailers, he escaped after a few months.

He went to France, to induce King Charles VI. to exert his influence to get the Popes in Rome and Avignon to resign, and to re-establish peace by a new election. On arriving at Rheims, in 1397, and having tasted some champagne, he protracted his diplomatic errand as long as possible, and then gave up all that was required of him, in order to prolong his stay, getting intoxicated on champagne every day before dinner. His love for wine was so great that the citizens of Nuremberg obtained the freedom of their city in return for four casks of Rhine wine from the vineyards of Bacharach, which they presented to him annually.

He was now accused of having made John Galeazzo Visconti duke of Milan for money, and thus diminishing the territory of the empire. Then he undertook to induce Pope Boniface IX. to resign; but this Pope had been recognized by most of the electors, and they were dissatisfied with the measure of Wenceslaus, particularly the Archbishop of Mayence, who owed his elevation to Boniface. At last the electors resolved to deprive him of his crown, but they disagreed respecting who should succeed him; and in 1400, the Electors of Mayence, Treves, Cologne, and the Palatinate pronounced his deposition. But though Wenceslaus was despised and deposed in Germany, he retained his hereditary kingdom of Bohemia, reformed its laws, and substituted the national language for Latin in the courts of justice. Rupert, his successor in the empire, he left unmolested; but, quarreling again with his brother Sigismund, he was taken prisoner, and kept by him a year and a half in Vienna. The Emperor Rupert died in 1410, and Sigismund, to whom Wenceslaus resigned his claims, was elected Emperor.

Wenceslaus again returned to Prague, and favored the anti-papal spirit of many among the people from political grounds, and from an inclination favorable to Huss, who was generally esteemed. He gave to Huss Count Chlurn and two other Bohemians of rank for his escort to the Council of Constance, as he wished to protect him. After the death of Huss, his friends, infuriated, stormed the Rathhaus, and threw down from the windows sixteen of the hostile senators, who were caught on the lance-points of the multitude below. Wenceslaus, beholding this horrible scene from his balcony, fell dead in a fit of anguish and despair, A.D. 1419.

The munificently endowed university of Prague brought foreigners to it from all parts of the world, until the decision of Wenceslaus to favor Bohemian students more than others drove thousands of scholars and professors to other places, and led to the foundation of universities at Leipsic, Ingolstadt, Rostock, and Cracow.

Wenceslaus was buried in the cathedral of Prague. His first wife was Joanna; his second, Sophia: both princesses of Bavaria. He left no children.

RUPERT, OR ROBERT, RUPRECHT VON DER PFALZ.

A.D. 1400-1410.

"Misericordia non causam sed fortunam spectat." (Compassion does not look upon the cause, but on the misfortune.)

RUPERT, Count Palatine of the Rhine, was a descendant of the House of Wittelsbach. He was crowned at Cologne, because Aix-la-Chapelle refused to receive him. He was as powerless to remedy the deep-rooted evils of the empire as Wenceslaus had been. Rupert, however, was a brave, active, and just man, adorned with many virtues and accomplishments, and deeply interested in the honor and welfare of the empire, both in Italy and Germany. Notwithstanding all this, he was unable to make his way to Rome, on account of the Visconti; and his defeat at Lake Garda proved that Italy was lost to the empire. His residence was at Heidelberg Castle. After his election as Emperor, the



ROBERT.

old building was too small for him, and he erected what is now called the Rupert Building. He died in 1410, and was buried at Heidelberg. His wife was Elizabeth, daughter of the Burgrave of Nuremberg.

SIGISMUND, SIEGMUND. A.D. 1410-1437.

"Mala ultra adsunt." (Misfortune comes uninvited.)



SIGISMUND.

attainments. He had the art of conciliating the princes of the diet, introduced many ameliorations into the government, and restored a calm to Germany which it had not enjoyed for thirty years.

On the death of his father he became Elector of Brandenburg; marrying the heiress of Hungary, he became king of Hungary, and

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after Wenceslaus's death king also of Bohemia; and now, as Emperor, if he had possessed more decision and perseverance, he would have been able to carry out the vast designs he contemplated. Furthermore, he was a poor economist, lavish in his expenditures, and, consequently, perpetually troubled for want of money.

Sigismund now directed his attention to the great schism existing in the Church; there being one Pope in Italy, another in France, and a third in Spain, each pronouncing the ban of excommunication against his opponents and those who sided with them. The Emperor, the King of France, and other kings and princes of Europe, spared no pains or expense to restore harmony and bring the Church again under one head. The pontiffs could not be persuaded to prefer the peace of the Church to their own glory; so that no course remained but to assemble a general council of the Church to take cognizance of this great controversy. Such a council Pope John XXIII., being prevailed upon by the entreaties of Sigismund, and hoping that it would favor his cause, appointed to be held at Constance in 1414. The principal object of this council was to extinguish the discord between the pontiffs, and this they successfully accomplished. For having established by two solemn decrees, in the fourth and fifth sessions, that a pontiff is subject to a council of the whole Church, and having most carefully vindicated the authority of councils, they, on the 29th of May, 1415, removed John XXIII. from the pontificate, on account of various offenses and crimes, for he had pledged himself to the council to resign the pontificate, and yet had withdrawn himself by flight. Gregory XII. voluntarily resigned on the 4th of July in the same year, and Benedict XIII., in July, 1417, was deprived of his rank by a solemn decree of the council.

After these transactions, Otto de Colonna was elected pontiff by the unanimous suffrages of the cardinals, and assumed the name of Martin V. Benedict XIII., who resided at Perpignan, resisted, indeed, and claimed the rights and the dignity of a pontiff until his death, in 1423; and after the death of this obstinate man, under the auspices of Alphonso, King of Sicily, Ægidius Muñoz, a Spaniard, was appointed by two cardinals to succeed him. He assumed the name of Clement VIII., and wished to be regarded as the legitimate pontiff; but in the year 1429 he was persuaded to resign the government of the Church entirely to Martin V.

The acts passed in this council for the suppression and extirpation of heretics are not equally commendable. Before the meeting of the council, great religious commotions had arisen in several countries,

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and especially in Bohemia. At Prague, John Huss, an eloquent and learned man, performed the duties of a professor of theology in the university, and those of a minister of the gospel in the Church. He preached vehemently against the vices of the clergy of all ranks, and numerous others did so in that age, nor did any good man disapprove of it. After the year 1408, he endeavored to detach the university from the interests of Gregory XII., whom Bohemia acknowledged as pontiff. This gave offense to the Archbishop of Prague and many of the clergy. Then he sided with the *Realists** in philosophy, and, according to the usages of the age, goaded and pressed the *Nominalists* to the utmost of his power, yet their number in the university was very considerable, and their influence was not small. The university at that time was divided into four nations, three of which, the Bavarian, Polish, and Saxon, were comprehended under the general name of the *German nation*. It had been the custom that the Germans, who far exceeded the Bohemians in numbers, should have three votes, and the Bohemians but one. Huss, either from partiality to his country or from his hatred of the *Nominalists*, whom the greatest part of the Germans preferred to the *Realists*, obtained, by means of the vast influence at court which his eloquence gave him, and the favor of the Emperor Wenceslaus, the

* Of all the literary controversies, the most memorable, on account of their extent, their violence, and the duration of their contests, are those of the *Nominalists* and the *Realists*. It was a most subtle question assuredly, and the world thought for a long while that their happiness depended on deciding whether universals, that is, *genera*, have a real essence, and exist independent of particulars, that is, *species*: whether, for instance, we could form an idea of asses prior to individual asses! Roscellin, in the eleventh century, adopted the opinion that universals have no real existence, either before or in individuals, but are mere names and words by which the kind of individuals is expressed,—a tenet propagated by Abelard, which produced the sect of the *Nominalists*. But the *Realists* asserted that universals existed independent of individuals, though they were somewhat divided between the various opinions of Plato and Aristotle. Of the *Realists*, the most famous were Thomas Aquinas and Duns Scotus. The cause of the *Nominalists* was almost desperate, till Occam, in the fourteenth century, revived the dying embers. Louis XI. favored the *Nominalists*, and they flourished at large in France and Germany; but, unfortunately, Pope John XXIII. patronized the *Realists*, and throughout Italy it was dangerous for a *Nominalist* to open his lips. The French king wavered, and the Pope triumphed; his majesty published an edict in 1474, in which he silenced forever the *Nominalists*, and ordered their books to be fastened up in their libraries with iron chains, that they might not be read by young students! The leaders of that sect fled into England and Germany, where they united their forces with Luther and the first Reformers. Nothing could exceed the violence with which these disputes were conducted. Vives himself, who witnessed the contests, says, that "when the contending parties had exhausted their stock of verbal abuse, they often came to blows; and it was not uncommon in these quarrels about *universals* to see the combatants engaging not only with their fists, but with clubs and swords, so that many have been wounded, and some killed."

passage of a decree that the Germans should be deprived of the privilege of three votes, and should content themselves with one. The result of this long contest so offended the Germans that a great multitude of them, with the rector of the university, John Hoffman, at their head, left the university of Prague, and retired to Leipsic, where a university was founded under the patronage of Frederic the Warlike, Margrave of Meissen and Landgrave of Thuringia.

After the Germans left Prague, Huss inveighed more freely against the vices of the clergy, and also publicly preached and recommended the opinions and the books of John Wickliffe, the Englishman. He was a good man, and a lover of real piety, though sometimes over-ardent and not sufficiently prudent. Pope John XXIII. excommunicated him in 1410; but he did not heed this, continuing to teach and preach as usual. Being summoned to the council of Constance, and being protected by a safe-conduct from the Emperor Sigismund, he went thither for the purpose of demonstrating his innocence, and of proving the falsehood of the charge that he had apostatized from the Roman Church. And certainly he had not departed in things of any moment from the religion of his times, but had only inveighed severely against the pontiffs, the court of Rome, the bishops and clergy, and the monks, which was a common practice at that day, and even in the council of Constance itself. Yet his enemies managed so artfully that, in violation of the public faith, he was cast into prison; and when he would not at the command of the council confess guilt, he was adjudged a heretic, and burned alive on the 6th of July, 1415. Full of faith and the love of God, he endured his punishment with admirable constancy.

The same unhappy fate was borne with the same pious fortitude by Jerome of Prague, who had come to Constance to support and aid his friend. He was committed to the flames on the 30th of May, 1416, and his ashes, like those of Huss, were thrown into the Rhine. Both Huss and Jerome were commanded to confess their faults and abjure their errors. They refused to do so unless they should be convinced of error, and this obstinacy was most grievous heresy. The Romish Church, indeed, had for many ages followed Pliny's principle, where he says, "Those who persevered I ordered to execution; for I had no doubt, whatever it might be they professed, such perverse and inflexible obstinacy ought certainly to be punished."

At this council was passed the famous decree, that the Holy Supper should be administered to the laity in the element of bread only, forbidding communion in both the elements. The council also ordered all the works of Wickliffe to be destroyed and his bones to be burned. In the

same year, John, Duke of Burgundy, having employed assassins to murder Louis, Duke of Orleans, in 1407, John Petit, a Parisian theologian, maintained the lawfulness, even in any private person, of killing a tyrant. The University of Paris passed a severe sentence upon the author of so dangerous an opinion, and the council added to the list of execrable heresies this opinion of John Petit; but the new pontiff, Martin V., through fear of the House of Burgundy, would not ratify the sentence of the council.

The council now proceeded to the important object for which they had been called together,—*the reformation of the Church in its head and members*, as the language of that age was. But the cardinals and principal men of the Romish Church, as well as the new pontiff, craftily urged a postponement; and thus, in 1418, after deliberating three years and six months, the council broke up, assigning the reformation of the Church, which all men devoutly prayed for, to a council to be called at the end of five years.

This council* was held in the hall of the *Kaufhaus*, built, in 1388, as a warehouse, close to the lake. That famous assembly was composed not of bishops alone, like the ancient councils, but of deputies, civil and ecclesiastical, from the whole of Christendom, including princes, thirty cardinals, four patriarchs, twenty archbishops, one hundred and fifty bishops, and twenty-five hundred professors of universities and doctors of theology, besides a host of ambassadors, inferior prelates, abbots, priors, etc.

The safe-conduct which Sigismund gave Huss, at the request of his brother Wenceslaus, ran thus:

"We, Sigismund, by the grace of God Roman Emperor, always august, King of Hungary, of Dalmatia and Croatia, make known to all princes, secular and ecclesiastical, dukes, margraves, counts, barons, nobles, chevaliers, chiefs, governors, magistrates, prefects, baillies,

* The concourse at that synod of distinguished men from every country of Europe was immense; while four thousand prelates and twenty-five hundred professors and doctors of law were preaching or disputing in the Gothic cathedrals, ten thousand princes, nobles, and knights were lance-breaking and sword-slashing on the meadows of the Rhine. There, too, in the midst of a continual whirl of enjoyments, of boisterous banquets, pompous processions and tournaments, solemn oratories, penitential flagellations, or wanton comedies and pantomimes, exhibiting the mysteries of heaven and hell, the austere and virtuous reformers John Huss and Jerome of Prague were condemned and burned at the stake, the schismatic Popes deposed, and universal reforms in the government and discipline of the Church discussed, adopted, but ultimately contravened by the intrigues of Pope Martin V. and his Italian cardinals. Thus all Christendom had its attention directed towards Constance, as two centuries earlier it had been directed to Jerusalem and the Holy Land.

custom-house officers, tax-gatherers, and all functionaries of cities, towns, villages, and frontiers; to all communities and their belongings, as well as to all our faithful subjects who shall see these presents:

"Venerable, most serene, noble, and dear faithful subjects,

"The honorable master John Hus of Bohemia, bachelor of Holy Scripture, and master of arts, the bearer of these presents, departing in a few days for the General Council which is to take place in the city of Constance, we have received and admitted him into our protection and that of the Holy Empire; we recommend him to you, one and all, and to each severally, with pleasure, and we enjoin you to receive willingly and treat favorably the aforesaid master Hus, if he presents himself to you, and to give him aid and protection in good will in everything which can be useful to him to favor his journey, whether by land or water.

"Furthermore, it is our will that you should let him pass, remain, and return freely and without obstacle, him, his servants, horses, wagons, baggage, and all other effects belonging to him, in all passages, gates, bridges, territories, seignories, bailiwicks, jurisdictions, cities, towns, castles, villages, and all other places, without making him pay imposts, rights of way, tolls, tribute, or any other charges, whatever they may be. In fine, to escort him with safety, him and all his company, if he needs it.

"All in honor of our Imperial Majesty.

"Given at Speyer, October 9, 1414, in the thirty-third year of our Hungarian reign, and the fifth year of our Roman reign."

John Huss, with this safe-conduct, arrived at Constance the 3d of November, appeared before the council the 28th of the same month, was put in prison in the Dominican convent Saturday, January 26, 1415, and did not leave it until led out to execution. The funeral-pile was erected outside the town, in the suburb of Brühl; Huss ascended it calmly, and knelt down. Summoned once more to abjure his doctrines, he replied that he would rather die than be perfidious towards God, as the Emperor Sigismund had proved towards him; then, seeing that the executioner was approaching to set fire to the pile, he exclaimed, three times, "Jesus Christ, son of the living God, who hath suffered for us, have mercy upon me!" When wrapt in the flames, the last words of the martyr were heard, "I commit my soul into the hands of my God and Saviour."

This execution was followed by that of Jerome of Prague. Conducted to the pile May 30, 1416, he walked as though he were going to a fête. The executioner, approaching as usual to set fire to the pile

behind him, Jerome said to him, "Come here, master, and light the pile in front of me; for if I had been afraid of fire, I would not have been here." Two months after their death, John XXIII. died, and the judge on earth became the accused before God.

After the council broke up, neither Pope Martin V. nor the Emperor Sigismund could pay the bills which the citizens of Constance presented; seeing which, they seized, deferentially, the silver vessels of the Emperor, the sacred vases of the Pope, the armor of the counts, the grand robes of the barons, and the harness of the chevaliers. The trouble was great; but Sigismund took it upon himself to settle the difficulty.

He assembled the magistrates and burghers of Constance in the warehouse in which the council had been held, mounted the tribune, and told them that he would become responsible for the debts of all. The burghers replied that they would be content, provided he gave them good security. The Emperor then sent for the bales of goods, the cloth of silk, of damask, and of velvet, the housings, the curtains, and the cushions embroidered with gold, caused them to be appraised by experts, deposited them in the warehouse, and pledged himself to redeem them within the year; and, as a greater security for the debt, and a proof that he acknowledged it, he had his seals put on the boxes which contained them, after which the royal visitors departed.

A year rolled by, and nothing was heard from the Emperor Sigismund; whereupon it was resolved to sell the effects which had been left in pledge. But then it was forbidden, on the part of his majesty, to proceed with the sale, because the seals affixed to them made them the property of the empire, and not that of the Emperor. It is now four hundred and fifty-five years since this notification was given.

The insurrections in Bohemia that occurred after the martyrdom of Huss and Jerome, continued nearly the remainder of the reign of Sigismund. The Hussites attacked Meissen, Franconia, Bavaria, Austria, and Brandenburg. One of the dogmas held by the insurgents was, "That when all the cities of the world should be burned down and reduced to the number of five, then would come the new kingdom of the Lord; therefore it was now the time of vengeance, and God was a God of wrath."

At length affairs, after great endeavors, were changed for the better, and this was effected at the Council of Basle. The Hussites were allowed to partake of the sacrament in both kinds, yet on condition that the priests should teach that Christ was perfect in each.

Notwithstanding the numerous and wealthy possessions of Sigismund,

he was often in the greatest pecuniary embarrassment. On this account he mortgaged, in 1417, the territory of Brandenburg, which, under his father, the Emperor Charles IV., had fallen to the House of Luxemburg, together with the elective franchise, and the office of Arch-Chamberlain connected therewith, to the Burgrave of Nuremberg, Frederic of Hohenzollern,* for four hundred thousand gold florins, which sum the latter had lent him at various times. By similar means, Frederic the Warlike obtained from him the Saxon electoral dignity for one hundred thousand marks.

When Henry the Lion forfeited his dukedom of *Old Saxony*, he had the misfortune of seeing his land divided, and the *name of his country* given to a strip of land on both sides of the Elbe, extending from Belgern to Wittenberg. Frederic Barbarossa gave this land to Bernhard of Anhalt, of the Ascanian dynasty, one of the oldest in Germany, claiming their descent from Wittikind. In the reign of the Emperor Charles IV., it was settled that seven German princes should elect (*küren*) the Emperor. Thus the Duke of Saxony, who had chosen Wittenberg for his residence, was called, from the year 1355, Elector of Saxe-Wittenberg, and his dukedom an electorate. This princely family died out in 1422, and Sigismund sold the electorate to Frederic the Warlike in 1423. Thus we see all at once the Margrave of Meissen and Landgrave of Thuringia become Duke of Saxony and elector. As the higher title of elector went with the dukedom of Saxony, the names of *Meissner-land* and *Thuringia* were dropped; and we see, also, that the *Old Saxons* were not the forefathers of the inhabitants of the present kingdom of Saxony, though the latter have inherited their name. The electors of Saxony resided in Wittenberg down to 1542, though they were buried at Meissen, not far from Dresden. Albert the Bold, grandson of Frederic the Warlike, first took up his residence in Dresden, after dividing the estate with his brother Ernest.

Sigismund died in 1437, and was buried in St. Laslakirche, in Gross-Waradin, or Wardein, in Hungary, by the side of his first wife, according to his will. He was the last of the male line of the House of Luxemburg. His first wife was Mary of Hungary, of the House of Anjou; his second was Barbara of Cilly, whom he caused to be imprisoned because she betrayed him. Cilly was a town near the river Save, with a strong castle of Roman origin. It was the residence of the proud counts of Cilly, who, as border-wardens, were intrusted with the defense of the frontiers against the incursions of the Hungarians,

* The ancestor of the present royal family of Prussia.

but often drew their swords against the Austrian dukes themselves. Sigismund left all his hereditary possessions to his daughter Elizabeth, who married Albert V. of Austria.

The first of the Neapolitan branch of the House of Anjou, in Hungary, was *Charles Martel*, the Pretender, who succeeded the Arpad dynasty, in Hungary, when that family became extinct, in 1301. Charles married Clementia of Hapsburg. Mary, the wife of the Emperor Sigismund, was their great-granddaughter.

CONTEMPORARIES OF THE EMPERORS WENCESLAUS, RUPERT, AND SIGISMUND

ENGLAND

Richard II., only son of the Black Prince, succeeded his grandfather, Edward III., in 1377. He was beautiful in person, but weak in character. In his youth he conquered the rebellion of Wat Tyler by a sudden exercise of valor and presence of mind; but his reign was afterwards spent in mostly ineffectual resistance to his three uncles,—the Dukes of Lancaster, York, and Gloucester. Having exiled and otherwise wronged his cousin, Henry Bolingbroke, son of John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster, Richard was taken prisoner by him, and compelled to resign his crown. This reign is distinguished by the commencement of the Reformation, through Wickliffe,* and his translation of the Bible into the English tongue. Richard's first wife was Anne of Bohemia, surnamed the Good, daughter of the Emperor Charles IV. Her ancestors originated from the same country as the Flemish Philippa, and by means of her uncle, the Duke of Brabant, she brought the same popular and profitable commercial alliance to England. Huss said that Anne could read the gospel in three languages,—Bohemian, German, and Latin. She was a constant peace-

* WICKLIFFE'S APOLOGY FOR TRANSLATING THE BIBLE

" O Lord God ! sithin at the beginning of faith so many men translated into Latin, and to great profit of Latin men, let one simple creature of God translate into English for profit of Englishmen. For, if worldly clerks look well their chronicles and books, they shoulde find that Bede translated the Bible and expounded much in Saxon, that was English, either [or] common language of this land, in his time. And not only Bede, but King Alfred, that founded Oxenford, translated, in his last days, the beginning of the Psalter into Saxon, and would more if he had lived longer. Also Frenchmen, Bemers [Bohemians], and Britons han [have] the Bible and other books of devotion and exposition translated into their mother language. Why shoulde not Englishmen have the same in their mother language ? I cannot wit [know or tell]. No; but for falseness and negligence of clerks, either for our people is not worthy to have so great grace and gift of God, in pain of their old sins."

maker between Richard and his subjects. She died in 1394, and Richard's grief was as enduring as it was acute. One year elapsed before he had devised a monument he thought worthy of his beloved Anne. His second wife was Isabella of Valois, surnamed the Little Queen. She was the daughter of Charles VI. and Isabella of Bavaria, and was only nine years old when she married Richard, who was thirty. The jewels she brought to England were valued at five hundred thousand crowns, and were afterwards a matter of political controversy between England and France. After Richard's death, Isabella returned to France, and married the celebrated poet-duke of Orleans. Richard left no children.

Richard left no children.

Henry IV., the first of the House of Lancaster, showed himself capable of reigning, possessing courage, vigilance, prudence, and great command of temper. The necessity under which he lay of courted popularity rendered his reign beneficial to the nation, and particularly favorable to the rights of the commons. When Duke of Hereford, Henry married Mary de Bohun, great-granddaughter to Edward I. and Eleanor of Castile. She and her sister, who married the Duke of Gloucester, were the richest heiresses in England. She died in the bloom of life, leaving six children,—the renowned Henry V.; Thomas, Duke of Clarence; John, Duke of Bedford, Regent of France; Humphrey, Duke of Gloucester, Protector of England; and two daughters, Blanche and Philippa. His second wife was Joanna, daughter of Charles the Bad of Navarre, and of Jane, daughter of King John of France. Joanna's first husband was John de Montfort, Duke of Bretagne, surnamed the Valiant. This duke received the banished Lancaster, and assisted him with vessels, men-at-arms, and cross-bows against Richard. Henry, at the period of his exile, gave to the *forget-me-not* its emblematic and poetic meaning, by uniting it on his collar with the initial letters of his watch-word,—“*Souveigne-vous de moy.*” Joanna was about thirty-three years old when Henry married her. Her exemplary conduct as the wife of the most irascible prince in Christendom, John the Valiant, and the excellence of her government as regent for her eldest son, had afforded unquestionable evidence of her prudence and wisdom; yet her marriage was never popular in England, on account of the foreigners she brought over with her. She had no children by Henry.

Henry V. succeeded his father in 1413. As the gallant and youthful conqueror of France, he is a favorite in English history; but he was inferior in wisdom and sound policy to many of his ancestors. He gained the great battle of Agincourt, married the daughter of the King

of France, and was appointed successor to the crown in exclusion of the rights of the dauphin. Henry and his infant son were crowned at Paris, in 1422. His wife was Katharine of Valois, surnamed the Fair, youngest daughter of Charles VI. of France. Henry, after conquering France, married Katharine, and their honeymoon was passed at the siege of Sens. Katharine's coronation took place at Westminster, in 1421. Shortly after their return to France, Henry died at the castle of Vincennes, near Paris. They had only one child,—Henry VI., who was only nine months old when his father died. Deep obscurity hangs over the birth and origin of Katharine's second husband, Owen Tudor. They had three children,—Edmund of Haddam, Jasper of Hatfield, and Owen, a monk. Katharine died at the age of thirty-five. Henry VI. took good care of his half-brothers. By his influence, Edmund married Margaret Beaufort, heiress of the house of Somerset, and then he bestowed upon him the title of Richmond, and gave him precedence of all English peers. Edmund died at the age of twenty, leaving an infant son, afterwards Henry VII.

FRANCE.

Charles VI., surnamed *the Well-Beloved*, came to the throne in 1380. His reign was one of the most disastrous in France. He reigned forty-two years, thirty of which were passed in a state of almost constant insanity. To amuse him, in his lucid intervals, the game of cards was introduced into France. Plays called *Mysteries* and *Moralities* were common in his time. They were first brought into Europe by pilgrims from the Holy Land, and the performers were all monks. These were followed by some young nobles, who formed themselves into a company to represent the follies and absurdities of the times. Henry V. of England invaded France, won the battle of Agincourt, and was made regent after marrying the king's daughter. Charles died in 1422, exactly six weeks before the brilliant career of his son-in-law was cut short by death. The wife of Charles VI. was Isabella of Bavaria, daughter of Stephen II., Count Palatine of the Rhine, and of Tadia Visconti. Her immoderate taste for luxury, and love of coquetry, began early to manifest itself, and she instituted a Court of Love upon the model of that established by Eleanor of Guienne. She neglected her husband and children, and made herself detested by the French nation. After Charles's death, Isabella was engaged in constant quarrels with her son. She died poor and abandoned, at the Hôtel Saint Paul, in the year 1435. She had six sons, all of whom died before her except Charles VII., for whom she expressed

the deepest hatred. She had also five daughters,—Isabella, who married Richard II. of England, and after his death, Charles, Duke of Orleans; Michal, wife of Philip the Good, Duke of Burgundy; Katharine, who married Henry V., and afterwards Owen Tudor; Mary, who became a nun; and Jane, Duchess of Brittany.

Charles VII., surnamed *the Victorious*, or *the Well-Served*, came to the throne when the English were masters of the whole country and possessed every considerable town except Orleans, which they were besieging. His fortunes were retrieved by Joan d'Arc, the inspired peasant-girl of Domrémi, who raised the siege of Orleans, and conducted the dauphin to Rheims, where he was crowned. Charles was obliged to banish his son, afterwards Louis XI., who had excited a rebellion against him. Louis was even charged with having bribed the servants to poison his own father. The unhappy monarch, under this fear, refused to take any food, and actually starved himself to death in 1461. During his reign the English lost all their possessions in France, except Calais. Charles's wife was Mary of Anjou, daughter of Louis II., Duke of Anjou and King of Naples and Jerusalem, and of Yolande of Aragon. This princess was remarkable for her mildness, piety, and resignation under Charles's numerous reverses; she cheerfully shared her indolent husband's fate during the fourteen years that his kingdom was almost entirely under the dominion of the English, and supported with patience his love of pleasure, and the disdain of some of his many favorites, who were not always so respectful to her as to Agnes Sorel. Her fierce and rebellious son Louis held her in great esteem, although he disobeyed her. Mary was the mother of twelve children. Her sons were Louis XI., who succeeded his father; Charles, Duke of Normandy, who was poisoned; and two other princes who died young. Among her daughters were Radegonde, wife of Sigismund, Duke of Austria; Catherine, Countess of Charolais; Yolande, wife of Amédée IX., Duke of Savoy; Jane, Duchess of Bourbon; and Madeleine, who married Gaston de Foix, Prince de Viane. After the death of Charles, Mary resided at Bourges, where she founded twelve chapels, and established twelve priests, who every hour in the day recited prayers for the unfaithful husband who had rendered her life a series of sacrifices, and herself a model of resignation.

SPAIN.

Aragon and Catalonia had, by their union in 1150, become a powerful kingdom, which, though of narrow limits when compared with Castile, distinguished itself by its well-balanced constitution, the energy

and prudent moderation of its kings, and the dauntless bravery and commercial activity of its citizens, who vied with the maritime republics of Italy in the traffic and navigation of the Mediterranean. The Balearic Islands were conquered in 1172, and the kingdom of Sicily acquired in 1282. The islands of Sardinia and Corsica, after many hard-fought naval battles, were wrested from the republics of Genoa and Pisa, in the course of the fourteenth century. When the Count of Foix, in 1285, endeavored to persuade the Catalan admiral, Roger de Loria, to consent to a truce, and attempted to intimidate him by saying "that France could arm three hundred galleys," "Let her do it," exclaimed Loria; "I will sweep the sea with my hundred, and no ship without leave from the King of Aragon shall pass; no, nor shall a fish dare to raise its head above the water, unless I can see that it bears the arms of Aragon on its tail." The Catalonians had consuls in Alexandria, Tunis, Constantinople, and Damascus so early as the thirteenth century, and they supplied the Low Countries and the north of Europe with the rich products of the Levant. Even the duchy of Athens and Greece was an appendage of the House of Aragon from 1311 until 1386. Barcelona, in its picturesque and strong position on the sea, and defended by its towering castle of Monjuich, became the centre of the Catalonian trade and industry, and the first among the commercial cities of the Mediterranean which obtained a written code of maritime laws, that formed the basis for the mercantile jurisprudence of Europe during the Middle Ages. Tortosa, on the Ebro, became celebrated by the heroical defense of its women, who, arming and relieving their exhausted husbands, repelled the Moorish invaders.

DENMARK.

Margaret, the daughter of Valdimar III., King of Denmark, by her talent and spirit obtained the name of the Semiramis of the North. Margaret married Hakon, King of Norway; and showed so much prudence and energy in the management of public affairs that her father frequently said, "Nature intended her *soul* for the body of a *man*, and not for that of a *woman*." Upon the death of her husband and of her son Oloff, she contrived to be proclaimed Queen of Norway, Sweden, and Denmark.

The arrogant and heedless Albrecht of Mecklenburg, then King of Sweden, had alienated the good will and respect of the Swedish nation by promoting worthless German knights to the most important offices in the court and army, and thus gave Margaret an easy victory. While Albrecht and his German chivalry were crossing a frozen lake near Fal-

köping, in order to attack the Danish army, the ice gave way, and the German knights, on their barbed war-steeds, ingulfed in the morass, were slaughtered or captured by the nimble yeomanry of Denmark. Albrecht was taken, imprisoned, and not restored to freedom until, seven years later, he had renounced all pretensions to the northern crowns. The manners of Scandinavia were still very coarse in the fourteenth century. Albrecht used to call Margaret the Breechless Queen; and he sent her a whetstone, three feet in length, with the advice to lay aside her sword and attend to sharpening her needles. This ungracious compliment the Danish queen answered by sending him in return a chemise of hers attached to a flagstaff, for his colors when marching his army against her. Nor did this epigrammatic war terminate with the defeat of Albrecht at Falköping, for Margaret ordered her indiscreet prisoner into her presence, and clapped a fool's cap, with a tail nineteen yards long, on his head for a mock crown, and sent him, thus exposed to the scoffings of the populace, to the dreary prison-vaults of Lindenholm Castle, in Skaane. Among the many curious historical relics still deposited in the sacristy of the splendid cathedral of Upsala, the traveler will behold the enormous whetstone, the smock banner, and the lengthy fool's cap of Prince Albrecht.

BURGUNDY.

The duchy of Burgundy, given in the year 1363, by John the Good, to his fourth son, *Philip the Bold*, had, by inheritance, marriage, purchase, and conquest, become one of the most powerful, civilized, and wealthy states of mediæval Europe; its dukes ranged both under the Emperor of Germany and the King of France as great feudatories, though almost entirely independent of either.

John the Fearless, son of Philip the Bold, had caused the assassination, in Paris, of his cousin and rival, Louis, the first Duke of Orleans, in 1407. The results of this crime were the conflicts of the two factions of Burgundians and Armagnacs, and the easy conquest of France by Henry V. of England. John gave the *Porte Rouge* (Red door) of Notre Dame, so called because given in expiation of his crime; but he himself was murdered on the bridge of Montereau, in the presence and by the orders of the dauphin, afterwards Charles VII. The conference was designed to bring about a reconciliation, in order that the two parties might combine to resist the invasion of France by Henry V. The son of John the Fearless, the prudent and active *Philip the Good*, still increased his extensive estates by the duchies of Brabant and Limburg, the marquisate of Antwerp, the county of Hainault, and

the Netherlands. The extravagant heiress, Jacqueline of Hainault, married John, Duke of Brabant, and brought him all her rich inheritance. But the married couple could not agree; mutual wrongs produced first a separation, and then a divorce. Jacqueline fled to England, where she married the Duke of Gloucester, and returned to the Netherlands with an army of five thousand English troops. War now broke out between her and her former husband,—the Duke of Brabant,—who was powerfully supported by his cousin, Philip the Good of Burgundy. Gloucester was defeated in 1424, and Jacqueline, getting into trouble with her English husband, fled to Holland, where she was well received by her subjects. Afterwards, on the death of her husbands, she put her dominions under the administration of the Duke of Burgundy, to whom, upon her death, in 1436, the whole descended *in full possession*. Philip the Good thus became one of the most powerful princes of Western Europe. It was this Philip who instituted the order of the Golden Fleece at Bruges, January 10, 1429, on the occasion of his marriage with Isabella, daughter of King John I. of Portugal. This order was instituted for the protection of the Church, and the fleece was probably assumed for its emblem as much from its being the material of the staple manufacture of the Low Countries as from its connection with heroic times. The founder made himself grand master of the order, a dignity appointed to descend to his successors; and the number of knights, at first limited to twenty-four, was subsequently increased. After the death of Charles V., the Burgundian-Spanish line of the House of Austria remained in possession of the order; but at the close of the Spanish war of succession, the Emperor Charles VI. laid claim to it in virtue of his possession of the Netherlands, and, taking with him the archives of the order, celebrated its inauguration with great magnificence at Vienna, in 1713. Philip V. of Spain contested the claim of Charles; and the dispute, several times renewed, was at last tacitly adjusted by the introduction of the order in both countries. The insignia are a golden fleece hanging from a gold-and-blue enameled flint-stone emitting flames, and borne in its turn by a ray of fire. On the enameled obverse is inscribed, *Pretium laborum non vile*. The decoration was originally suspended from a chain of alternate fire-stones and rays, for which Charles V. allowed a red ribbon to be substituted, and the chain is now worn only by the grand master. The Spanish decoration differs slightly from the Austrian. The costume consists of a long robe of deep red velvet lined with white taffetas, and a long mantle of purple velvet lined with white satin, and richly trimmed with embroidery containing fire-

stones and steels emitting flames and sparks. On the hem, which is of white satin, is embroidered in gold, *Je l'ai empris*. There is also a cap of purple velvet embroidered in gold, with a hood, and the shoes and stockings are red.

PORUGAL.

No European nation possesses a more brilliant history than the Portuguese during the latter part of the Middle Ages, from the beginning of the thirteenth century to the middle of the sixteenth. From their small, devastated territory, between the rivers Minho and Duero, the Portuguese, under a succession of active and warlike kings, intelligent statesmen, and daring navigators, drove the Moors from the western shores of the Peninsula as early as A.D. 1250, and, beating back the attacks of their proud Castilian neighbors, formed their independent and powerful monarchy; and they soon followed up their victorious career against the Arabs by the successful invasion of the opposite shores of Africa. After gaining possession of Ceuta, Tangier, and a number of cities and fortresses on the African continent, they boldly steered their course through the waves of the unknown Atlantic, and discovering and colonizing the beautiful islands of Madeira, the Azores, Porto Santo, and Cape Verd, they doubled the promontory of Good Hope, and, by the conquest of the East Indian coasts and islands, laid the foundation of that astonishing colonial empire which was to raise Portugal, within half a century, to the highest pitch of wealth, prosperity, and glory,—the wonder and admiration of Europe.

SAVOY.

Count Amadeus II., in right of his mother Adelaide, heiress to the marquisate of Susa, added nearly the whole of Piedmont to his possessions. *Thomas I.*, his great-grandson, aided the Emperor Frederic II. in his contests with the Popes, receiving as reward the title of Imperial Vicar of Piedmont, and in 1232 made Chambéry his capital. His son *Amadeus* compelled the city of Turin to acknowledge him its lord. *Peter, brother of Amadeus*, before coming to the throne, served Henry III. of England nine years, and was made Earl of Richmond and Essex; he won the name of Charlemagne the Little, and inherited the county of Geneva. He also brought Turin into subjection, which had again rebelled. Each succeeding count strove to retain what he had, and also to add to his territories. In 1416, the Emperor Sigismund gave *Amadeus VIII.* the title of duke. In 1434, Amadeus resigned in favor of his son Louis, and retired into a convent. Chosen Pope by a schismatical faction in 1439, he assumed the name of Felix V., and held his ground

against his rivals, Eugenius IV. and Nicholas V., until 1449, when he resigned and retired to a convent with the title of cardinal. His son *Louis* took the title of duke, and married Charlotte, the daughter of the King of Cyprus. He gave his own daughter in marriage to the dauphin of France, afterwards Louis XI., whom he supported against his rebellious vassals. The neighbors of Savoy were a great hindrance to its prosperity. The Duke of Burgundy, the princes of the House of Anjou, the republic of Genoa, the Visconti, Sforza, and Medici of Florence, the Kings of France and Spain, and even the Popes, saw in the descendants of Humbert only subalterns to sacrifice.

RUSSIA.

From time immemorial the more temperate portions of this vast territory were parcelled out among barbarous tribes, which owned no common bond of union, nor even a collective national appellation. It was in the ninth century that the first step was taken by *Ruric*, with his *Varangians* from the Baltic, to combine these loose elements and impose his name on the vanquished. Novgorod; that republican mother of a most despotic empire, was then so powerful that it was a common saying among its neighbors, "Who can dare to oppose God and Novgorod the Great?" Ruric, after the death of his two brothers, took peaceful possession of this city in 864, assumed the title of grand prince, and portioned out all the other cities among his companions in arms. We have mentioned Anna, the sister-in-law of the Emperor Otho II. of Germany, the daughter of the Greek Emperor Romanus II., who married the Grand Duke Wladimir and carried civilization into Russia. The Northmen, who came in with Ruric, and the Angles and Saxons, who left England after the conquest of their country by William of Normandy, pushed on to Constantinople, and took military service among the Greeks. The Byzantine Emperors, surrounded by intrigues and treachery, were glad to enlist several thousands of brave and sober Northmen, called *Varangians*. They received high pay, and wore their bear-skin mantles over their glittering armor. With their heavy broadswords at their side, and the double-edged battle-axe on their shoulders, they attended the Emperor to the Santa Sophia, the Senate, the Hippodrome, or the battle-field. He slept and feasted under protection of this guard, and the keys of the palace and imperial treasury, of the towers and gates of Constantinople, were held by the firm and faithful hand of the Scandinavian prince who commanded that chosen body. They continued to speak their own language, and, on days of great festivals, they offered their congratulations to the Em-

peror in the Danish tongue. Moscow, on the Moskwa, was a small summer residence of the princes of Susdal, when Yury (George) Dolgoruki of Susdal, in 1147, laid the foundation of a large city, which soon became the capital of the grand duchy of one of the Wladimirs. *Wladimir Monomachus* married Gyda, daughter of Harold, the last Saxon king of England. It was not until 1340 that the succession to the grand principality was allowed to descend from father to son in the branch of Moscow. This, with the longevity of the Muscovite grand princes, was another very remarkable cause of the prodigious growth of their power.

OTTOMAN EMPIRE.

In 1299, *Othman*, the renowned leader of the Turks, commenced the victorious career which ended by his laying the foundation of a new empire. The Turks had been until then a wandering race; but they were established in the lands they had conquered; and this new empire was called after its conqueror the Ottoman Empire, *Othman* being its first Sultan. *Amurath*, his grandson, instituted those haughty foot-soldiers called Janizaries. In his wars against the Slavonian nations he made a great many prisoners. The handsomest and the stoutest of these captives were trained to arms, formed into a militia, and consecrated by a dervish, or holy man. Standing in the front of their ranks, he stretched the sleeve of his gown over the head of the foremost soldier, and his blessing was delivered in these words: "Let them be called Janizaries! (*Zingi cheri*, or new soldiers.) May their countenances be ever bright! their hands victorious! their swords keen! May their spears always hang over the heads of their enemies! and wheresoever they go, may they return with a white face!" Such was the origin of the Janizaries.

TAMERLANE.

In the reign of the Emperor Wenceslaus, *Timour Beg*, better known by the name of *Tamerlane*, was the hero of the day. Tamerlane was a Tartar prince, who claimed descent from the famous Zenghis Khan. In 1380 he began his triumphant military career, conquering in Tartary, Persia, and India. Beyond the victories of Alexander he pushed his military exploits, passed the Ganges, and took the city of Delhi, in Hindoostan. *Bajazet I.* was then Emperor of the Turks; he was the son of Amurath I., who had founded the Janizaries. Bajazet was also ambitious and fond of war, had gained many victories, and caused the Emperor of Constantinople to tremble on his throne. These two haughty warriors met on the plains of Angoria, in Phrygia. Bajazet

was defeated, taken prisoner, and confined in an iron cage. Bajazet was the first Turkish chief who took the title of Sultan, his predecessors having been called Emirs. The Emperor of Constantinople consented to pay a considerable sum to Tamerlane, and the Sultans of Egypt, by means of rich presents, prevented his invasion of their territory. *Solyman I.*, the son of Bajazet, was left unmolested by the conqueror; and Samarcand, Tamerlane's capital, was enriched by the treasures of distant climes. In his seventieth year he commenced the conquest of China; but his progress was arrested by a short and severe fever, and he died at Ortar, in 1405. Most of the nations he had subdued recovered their freedom at his death, and the successors of Bajazet rendered the Turkish Empire more powerful than it had ever been.

THE BYZANTINE EMPIRE.

The civil wars between 1341 and 1346, the internal decay and misery, the defeats of the foreign auxiliaries at Nicopolis, in 1396, and at Varna, in 1444, and the virulence of the theological contest of the Latin and Greek Churches, brought the ancient empire, in 1450, to the brink of ruin. Its still remaining territories consisted of the city of Constantinople, with its one hundred and sixty thousand inhabitants, and the environs as far as the ruinous walls of Anastasius, while beyond, the country swarmed with Turkish spahis; the Chalcedonian peninsula, in Macedonia, with the city of Salonica, the peninsula of Cassandra, and the promontory of Athos, inhabited by monks; and the Peloponnesus, divided into the two despotats of Sparta and Patras, belonged to the two hostile brothers, Demetrius and Thomas Palæologi.

COSSACKS.

The Cossacks appear for the first time about the year 1320. They were a warlike tribe of south and southeastern European Russia. Stephen Batholi, one of the ablest kings of Poland, constituted these Cossacks of the Ukraine the guards of the southeastern frontier of Poland, giving them a regular military organization under hetmans or chiefs. The dignity of chief hetman, or attaman, is now vested in the Crown Prince of Russia. Their present number is estimated at from one and a half to three millions. They settled about the middle of the fourteenth century on the banks of the Dnieper.

THE GOLDEN HORDE.

Batu Khan, with his swarms of Mongols, overran Russia as far as the sources of the Volga and Dnieper, laid many flourishing cities in ashes,

enslaved the Russians, and founded the *Golden Horde* of Kaptchak, in 1230. He then wheeled westward, and, crossing the Vistula and the Oder, vanquished the Poles and the knights of the Teutonic order in Silesia in 1241. Then, after desolating Hungary with fire and sword, and defeating the Hungarians on the plain of Mohi, he returned victorious, and gorged with spoils, to organize his conquests in Russia. But neither the Mongols nor their faithful companions, the steeds of the steppe, could live in the cold, dreary regions of the Upper Volga. The Khan, therefore, retired, with all his army, to the smiling banks of the Caspian Sea and the Yaik. There he built his immense camp-town of Sarai; and his *golden tent* gave the name to the ruling horde of the Kaptchak. The trade on the Caspian was restored, and the Mongols even became a commercial people. Batu Khan left the Russian serfs their shadows of tributary princes, and the cunning Tartar fomented their petty jealousies and internal feuds; he ordered them down to the golden tent of Sarai, where he sat to decide their suits as a sovereign judge, and to punish every attempt at insurrection with the string or the scimitar. This Golden Horde continued for more than a century to dispose of the lives and dignity of the great princes of Russia.

THE MAMELUKES.

The Mamelukes (Arabic, *memalic*, a slave) were introduced into Egypt by the Sultan Es-Salih about the middle of the thirteenth century, and were composed principally of Asiatic youths, purchased of Genghis Khan, whose subjects they were. They formed the bodyguard of the Sultan. In 1387 they deposed the Sultan of Egypt, and made their leader Sultan. Mehemet Ali, Pasha of Egypt, destroyed them in 1811.

HOUSE OF AUSTRIA.

LINEAGE OF HAPSBURG.		A.D.
ALBERT II. of Austria, son-in-law of Sigismund	.	1437-1439
FREDERIC III., cousin of Albert II.	.	1440-1493
MAXIMILIAN, son of Frederic III.	.	1493-1519
CHARLES V., grandson of Maximilian	.	1519-1556
FERDINAND I., grandson of Maximilian	.	1556-1564
MAXIMILIAN II., son of Ferdinand I.	.	1564-1576
RUDOLPH II., son of Maximilian II.	.	1576-1612
MATTHIAS, son of Maximilian II.	.	1612-1619
FERDINAND II., cousin to Matthias	.	1619-1637
FERDINAND III., son of Ferdinand II.	.	1637-1657
LEOPOLD I., son of Ferdinand III.	.	1657-1705
JOSEPH I., son of Leopold I.	.	1705-1711
CHARLES VI., son of Leopold I.	.	1711-1740

HOUSE OF AUSTRIA.

ALBERT II., ALBRECHT DER ZWEITE. A.D. 1437-1439

"Amicus optima vitae possessio." (A friend is the greatest treasure in life.)

ALBERT II., great-great-grandson of the Emperor Albert I., son-in-law of the Emperor Sigismund, and King of Hungary and Bohemia, was elected and crowned at Frankfurt. He was a brave and distinguished prince, and would, without doubt, have proved of great benefit to the empire; but he died in the second year of his reign, after his return from an expedition against the Turks. Perhaps there was never a sovereign so lamented by high and low, rich and poor, as Albert. He was buried in Stuhlweissenburg, southwest of Buda, where the Hungarian kings were crowned and buried. His wife was Elizabeth of Hungary, daughter of the Emperor Sigismund. Their son, Ladislas Posthumus, died in 1457, leaving no children. The Hungarians then chose Matthias, son of John Corvinus, as king, being resolved not to elect one from among the Austrian princes. The Bohemians likewise selected a private nobleman for their king, George Podiebrad,



ALBERT II.

who ruled Bohemia until his death with prudence. Elizabeth, Albert's widow, unable to defend the thrones of Hungary and Bohemia, offered her hand to Ladislas III. of Poland, son of Hedwig and Jagellon, who, after some struggles, also became King of Hungary, under the name of Uladislaus I., and, after several victories over the Turks, under his brave general, John Hunyady, fell in the bloody battle of Varna, in 1444.

FREDERIC III., FRIEDRICH DER DRITTE. A.D. 1440-1493.

"Austrice est imperare orbi universo." (Austria shall govern the universe.) Or, in German, "Aller Ehren ist Oesterreich voll." (Austria is full of all honor.) The House of Austria has perpetuated this favorite device, "A. E. I. O. U."



FREDERIC III.

the arch-ducal title to his family.

FREDERIC III. was the grandson of Leopold the Brave, who was slain at Sempach, in 1386, and second cousin to the Emperor Albert II. His father was Duke Ernest of Styria, and his mother was a Polish princess. He was born at Innspruck in 1415. At the age of twenty, he undertook an expedition to the Holy Land; and on his return, in conjunction with his factious brother, Albert the Prodigal, he assumed the government of his hereditary dominions of the duchy of Austria, the revenues of which scarcely exceeded sixteen thousand marks. On the death of the Emperor Albert II. he was unanimously elected as his successor, and after hesitating eleven weeks he accepted. Two years afterwards he was solemnly crowned at Aix-la-Chapelle, and ten years later he received the imperial crown at the hands of Pope Nicholas V., at Rome, and, in 1453, secured

The only weapon he wielded with

dexterity was diplomacy, which served only the private purposes of the House of Austria, of which he may be regarded as the second founder, notwithstanding his indolence. The Council of Basle, which was summoned by Sigismund in 1431, was still in session, and they were forming good resolutions, and would doubtless have carried them into effect, had it not been for the former secretary of the Emperor Frederic, Æneas Sylvius, of the House of Piccolomini, in Sienna, one of the most distinguished men of his day. He had formerly been secretary of the Council of Basle, and the most zealous vindicator of the rights of councils, but when his ambition was flattened by the prospect of a more splendid career in attaching himself to the papal chair, he asserted its dignity against the danger which threatened it, and proved himself able to induce his Emperor and several German princes to favor the interests of the Pope. He afterwards became Pope Pius II., but soon after his elevation to the Papacy he died, in 1462.

The reign of Frederic was a prolonged struggle against domestic intrigues and foreign aggressions. One of his most troublesome opponents was his brother Albert, who refused to give up the provinces which he held until he had received a large sum of money.

John Hunyades Corvinus, at the head of a Hungarian army, overran Austria, and laid siege even to Vienna; and Francesco Sforza possessed himself of the imperial fief of Milan. The founder of the house of Sforza was a native of Romagna,—Giacomo Attendolo, whose skill and courage as a statesman and a warrior made him one of the most powerful *condottieri* of Italy. As he was one day laboring in the field, he was attracted by the sight of some mercenaries, and, throwing his axe against a tree, determined to become a soldier if it stuck in the tree, and to remain a peasant if it fell. Fate doomed him to become a soldier, and he served Joanna II., Queen of Naples, who regarded him as the stay of her throne. The name of Sforza he assumed from the vigor with which he had hurled the axe. His family gave six sovereigns to Milan, and formed alliances with most of the princely families of Europe.

To his equally valiant son, Francesco, he left, with a body of devoted followers, a power which made him formidable to any of the Italian states. Francesco became the son-in-law of Philip Visconti, Duke of Milan, and received the command of the Milanese forces in the war against Venice. But after the death of his father-in-law he seemed to possess the power and will to seize upon the throne, to which his wife, Bianca, had a hereditary claim. He accordingly concluded a treaty

with Venice, advanced against Milan, and compelled the citizens by famine to surrender the city. They chose him duke in 1448, and the descendants of the fortunate and celebrated Francesco occupied the ducal throne until 1535, when the Emperor Charles V. conferred the duchy upon his son, Philip II. of Spain.

Meantime, the Turks were busy. Constantine Palaeologus held the reins of the Byzantine Empire when *Mahomet II.* planned and executed the wishes of his father, Amurath II., by the taking of Constantinople. It is curious that the founder and the loser of that city, like the founder and the loser of Rome, bear the same name: a Romulus founded Rome, and a Romulus lost it; a Constantine founded Constantinople, and a Constantine lost it. The siege lasted fifty days, and the slaughter was immense. The nobles fought around the Emperor with desperate valor, and he seemed only fearful of falling alive into the hands of the Turks. "Cannot there be found a Christian to cut off my head?" he exclaimed, as he continued to fight desperately. Throwing off the distinguishing purple, he met death bravely, and his body lay beneath heaps of the slain, unknown and unhonored. The city was taken May 29, 1453.

Disorder and rapine reigned in the conquered city till Mahomet II. entered it; and his first care was to preserve the magnificent edifices that met his eye. Waving his scimitar, he said that if he had yielded the people and their property for spoil, the public buildings he reserved for himself. The churches were used as mosques; the crosses were demolished; and every vestige of the Christian religion was removed or destroyed. As he walked through the palaces of so many illustrious successors of Constantine the Great and gazed upon the naked walls, he is said to have repeated the lines of a Persian poet, "The spider has woven his web in the imperial palace; and the owl has sung her watch-song on the towers of Afrasiab."

Mahomet then took his way towards the Danube, and very nearly succeeded in conquering Hungary also. Frederic and the Pope tried to raise a crusade; Calixtus III. fitted out a fleet of sixteen galiots at his own expense, and John Capristan, like Peter the Hermit, preached a crusade, and assembled some thousands to oppose the invader. Mahomet laid siege to Belgrade, called by the Germans *Weissenburg*, the capital of Servia, situated at the confluence of the rivers Save and Danube. The Turks numbered two hundred thousand; but the Magyar hero, John Hunyades, and the brave Franciscan monk, Capristan, defeated them in three pitched battles beneath its walls, July 14, 21, 22, A.D. 1456, and forced the furious Sultan to raise the siege, with a loss of sixty thousand men.

In Germany there were numberless contests and feuds; the Emperor could not influence public measures, and scarcely could he maintain his dignity among his own subjects. Things even went to such extremities that, in 1462, Frederic, with his wife and son, Maximilian, then four years of age, was besieged by his subjects in his own castle of Vienna. The Emperor showed himself firm and resolute; he encouraged his small garrison of four hundred men to make the bravest resistance, and called out from the walls, "I will defend this spot until my last breath!" The insurgents were led by a burgher of Vienna: and Duke Albert, Frederic's brother, and George Podiebrad, King of Bohemia, were the first to come to the Emperor's assistance. The siege was raised, and a reconciliation took place. Frederic resigned Lower Austria and Vienna to Albert for eight years. Albert died the following year, and Frederic recovered his possessions.

Frederic had issued the ban of the empire against Frederic, Count Palatine of the Rhine; but he went on adding towers to his castle of Heidelberg, one of which he called "*Trutz Kaiser*,"—"Defiance to the Emperor." This Frederic was the first German who united learning to knighthood. He was called by his enemies Frederic the Bad; but history surnames him Frederic the Victorious. He married Clara von Detten, the daughter of a wealthy citizen of Augsburg. The count also took under his protection Diether, Archbishop of Mayence, the head of the party in Germany who sought to maintain the superiority of the councils to the pontiffs, after Pope Pius II. had excommunicated him. The Emperor, who sided with the Pope, sent the Margrave Albert of Brandenburg and Ulric of Würtemberg as his generals of the imperial army to punish him. The Count Palatine totally routed the army of Würtemberg near the village of Seckenheim, and took Ulric, with the Margrave of Baden, prisoners. His ally, Duke Louis of Bavaria, attacked Albert of Brandenburg with equal success not far from Giengen, in Swabia, and captured the imperial banner.

A feud broke out between the nobles, led by Albert of Brandenburg, who, from his strength and prowess, was called the German Achilles, and the city of Nuremberg, in Franconia, then one of the most flourishing and populous cities in all Germany. It was the old animosity of the knights against the free citizens. On one side were seventeen of the greatest princes of the empire, on the other, Nuremberg, with seventy-two imperial towns, and the Swiss also sent eight hundred men. Eight times the nobility were victorious; but in March, 1456, the army of Albert was totally defeated near Pillerent. This battle

is celebrated in a poem called "The Battle of Nuremberg," written by Hans Rosenplüt, an heraldic painter of Nuremberg.

The feudal system, under Frederic's reign, raged to such an extent that even the shoeblocks in Leipsic sent a challenge to the university of that place, and the bakers in the Palatinate and Baden defied several imperial cities in Suabia. Public affairs were in a bad state, the peasantry were in great distress, and the *Tribunal of Westphalia* provoked numberless complaints. The *Heilige Vehme* summoned the Emperor and his chancellor to appear and answer for their lives and honor, in not attending to the great needs of the whole empire.

In 1476, Hans Buchheim, called "Johnny the Piper," proclaimed himself a prophet, and rallied the peasants of Franconia against the bishops of Würzburg.

But these and minor troubles were lost in the attempts of Charles the Bold, called also Charles the Rash, Duke of Burgundy, to revive the ancient kingdom of Burgundy, and assume the title of king, the height of his ambition. Charles was delighted at the proposal of Frederic to give his own son, Maximilian, in marriage to his only daughter, Mary, who afterwards became the heiress of the beautiful lands of Burgundy, and they agreed upon a conference at Treves, in 1473. The rich duke appeared with more than imperial splendor, while Frederic, through the disordered state of his finances, met him in a very poor and mean condition. This mortifying contrast, and the displeasure of Frederic at the proud and assuming behavior of the duke, who was so sure of obtaining the royal title that he had actually brought with him the jewels for his coronation, and had made great preparations for the festival, caused Frederic to leave Treves suddenly, without even taking leave of the duke. Charles was so indignant that he left Treves, declaring that the proposed marriage should not take place.

Nevertheless, Charles had been so much prepossessed in favor of the young, chivalrous son of the Emperor, and gave his daughter such a glowing description of his merits, that her heart was so captivated that, without ever having seen Maximilian, she soon afterwards sent a letter to the young prince, betrothing herself to him.

The cool pretext which Frederic had given the duke as the cause of his abrupt departure from Treves, because of the trouble between the Archbishop of Cologne and his chapter, had now become so serious that the archbishop sent to Charles for assistance. The chapter had shut themselves up in Neuss, not far from Cologne. Charles marched with an army of sixty thousand men, and encamped before the town.

Here he stayed eleven months, made fifty-six vain assaults, and lost upwards of fifteen thousand men. Frederic approached with an imperial army to succor the city; and Charles was obliged to conclude a treaty, which, although attended with no advantage, nevertheless brought him no disgrace.

The restless duke soon afterwards attacked René, Duke of Lorraine, whose country he wished to annex to his own. He conquered Nancy, the capital, and then directed his arms against the Swiss, so that his dominions might extend from the sources of the Rhine to its mouth. While at Nancy, Charles received information of the disgrace and death of Pierre Hagenbach, whom he had made governor of Ferrette.

Pierre von Hagenbach had been made bailiff of Alsace by Charles after it had been mortgaged to him, in 1455, by Archduke Albert. Pierre paid no attention to the stipulations of the mortgage, which guaranteed the privileges of the people. He entered insolently upon his office, followed by his army, and preceded by eighty men-at-arms, wearing his livery, white and gray, with the words *Je passe* (I pass) embroidered in silver. His first acts were putting a tax of a penny on every bottle of wine, and forbidding the nobles to hunt. He committed outrages on families and convents; took property which belonged to the citizens of Strasburg; made raids into the bishoprics of Speyer and Basle; took the burgomaster of Schaffhausen prisoner, and demanded ransom; planted the standard of Burgundy on property belonging to Berne, and, when they remonstrated, replied, that if they made any more complaints he would go to Berne and skin their bears for them; one of his captains had taken a number of Swiss, who were going with their cloths to the fair at Frankfort; and all who were sent to remonstrate with him upon these outrages were shamefully and cruelly treated. Last of all, he refused to pay one of his German captains, who, taking advantage of the general feeling against Hagenbach, led the inhabitants against him, captured his castle, took him prisoner, tried him, condemned him, and, as a favor, allowed him to be beheaded. Hermann von Eptingen, an officer of the archduke, presided at the trial, ordered him first to be degraded from the order of knighthood, taking off his collar, his gold chain, ring, poniard, gauntlets, and breaking his spurs, and striking him in the face in token of infamy. Hermann then turned to his auditory. "Chevaliers," said he, "and you who desire to become knights, guard in your memories this public punishment, that it may serve you as an example; and live nobly and valiantly in the fear of God, in the dignity of knighthood, and for the honor of your names."

The provost arose, and, speaking to the executioner, said, "This man belongs to you; let justice be done upon him."

Charles was met by a deputation of Swiss, who represented to him that their entire country was not as valuable as the trappings of his horses; but, regardless of their remonstrances, he invaded Switzerland, and attacked the castle of Granson, which resisted for ten days the assaults and artillery of the Burgundian army. When at length, reduced by famine, and invited by the offer of a free pardon by a spy or deserter who had entered the castle by stealth, the garrison surrendered, Charles caused them to be stripped and hung by hundreds on the surrounding trees, or thrown into the lake.

The cry "to arms!" echoed through every valley in Switzerland; messengers departed to every canton; signal-fires were lighted on every mountain. Charles marched on towards Morat, the garrison of which was commanded by Adrien von Bubemberg, who wrote to the Bernese, "The Duke of Burgundy will soon be here with all his forces, his Italian condottieri and his traitor German mercenaries; come as soon as possible, but meantime have no fear; I will defend Morat." Charles came, and day after day his artillery thundered against the walls. Two assaults, led by the duke himself, were repulsed; twice the rash duke mounted the breach, only to be driven back. Adrien was everywhere, and seemed to have infused his soul into the bodies of all his soldiers. Then, after repelling all day the furious assaults of his enemies, he wrote at night to his confederates, "Do not hurry too much, and be calm; so long as there remains a drop of blood in our veins we will defend Morat."

Meantime, the cantons had begun their march. The men of the Oberland, Brienne, Aargau, Uri, Entlibuch, were the first in motion; Count Owald of Thierstein joined them with the troops of the archduke; Count Louis of Eptingen came with the soldiers of Berne and Strasburg; Duke René of Lorraine appeared with three hundred horsemen; and now they were only waiting for the men of Zurich.

Hans von Hallewyl from Aargau, who had served under the King of Bohemia against the Turks, led the van. Hans Waldman of Zurich led the main army, having with him, from courtesy, Wilhelm Herter, captain of the men from Strasburg, who joined as allies. Gaspard Hertenstein, with the troops from Lucerne, brought up the rear.

The Duke of Burgundy was on the alert, and eager to meet these enemies. Day after day he rode up to a height to see if they were coming. At length he perceived them on the other side of the hill, intrenched in the forest. The sky was dark, and the rain falling in

torrents. Charles, after waiting two or three hours, getting his powder damp and his bows wet, gave the signal to return to his camp. This was the moment the confederates had been awaiting. Hans von Hallewyl called out, "Kneel, and let us pray." Every man in the whole army obeyed, and the voices of thirty-four thousand men praying for liberty and their country went up to God.

Just then the clouds broke away, and the sun was reflected from the arms of the kneeling multitude. Hans arose, drew his sword, and exclaimed, "Brave men, God sends us the light of his sun; think of your wives and children." The whole army arose as one man, shouting, "Granson! Granson!" and they fell with such fury upon the enemy that Charles was obliged to fly, leaving twenty thousand of his men dead on the field. The Swiss afterwards buried them, and raised a memorial over their bodies with the inscription, "This memorial was left behind by the martial host of the Duke of Burgundy, A.D. 1476."

The spoils taken by the Swiss show the wealth of the Duke of Burgundy. In his tent, the outside of which was hung with armorial shields of gold and pearls, were found the throne of gold on which he sat on important occasions; his ducal hat of yellow velvet, thickly studded with the most precious jewels and pearls; the regalia of the Golden Fleece; the great seal of Burgundy, in gold, weighing a pound; the golden chaplet of his father, having jewel drops; cabinets of relics, and a valuable prayer-book. In the dining-room were goblets of silver and gold, and dishes and plates of silver and gold. There were also four hundred traveling trunks, containing the richest embroidery of gold and silver. The largest of the duke's jewels, and which he estimated at the price of an entire province, was picked up by a Swiss, and sold by him for a florin. Pope Julius II. purchased it afterwards for twenty thousand ducats, and it still shines as the chief jewel in the Pope's tiara. Another of Charles's jewels is in the French crown, and a third is in the imperial treasury at Vienna.

After this, Charles sank into despondency; but hearing that the young Duke René of Lorraine was attempting to recover his territories, he roused himself and laid siege to Nancy, where he lost his life. Two days after the battle, which took place January 5, 1477, the lifeless body of Charles the Bold was discovered in a pond just outside of the town. The might of Burgundy was laid prostrate by the Swiss and German *lanzknights* engaged to support René of Lorraine. Charles rushed to his destruction with a dispirited army, inferior to that of his opponents, and betrayed by his Neapolitan favorite, Campo Basso.

With his life ended the protracted resistance of the great French vassals to the central power of the monarchy.

The year before Charles the Bold succeeded his father in Burgundy, great events had taken place in Prussia. We have spoken of the introduction of the Teutonic order of the Knights of St. Mary into that country, under their great commander, Hermann von Salza. In 1238 the Teutonic order united with the Sword Knights of Livonia, and in 1309 their grand master transferred the seat of the order from Venice to Marienburg, on the Nogat, a branch of the Vistula.

During the fourteenth century German colonists flocked to Prussia, and introduced their agriculture and industry; the Prussians themselves were a cattle-breeding people; peace and prosperity prevailed for long periods throughout the land, and, under the severe and vigorous administration of able grand masters, it soon presented the appearance of a beautiful garden interspersed with hamlets, castles, and the delightful country-seats of the knights. Prussia alone numbered, about A.D. 1400, four bishops, four great commanders, twenty-eight commanders, forty-six priors, thirty-eight convents of knights; a vast host of subordinate officials, canons, and priests; three thousand one hundred and sixty-two knights, and six thousand two hundred squires, sergeants, light-horsemen, and valets. The number of fortified cities was fifty-five, of castles forty-eight, of boroughs and hamlets eighteen thousand three hundred and sixty-eight. The regular and permanent revenues from the province were eight hundred thousand Rhenish guilders, without counting the more irregular receipts from the fisheries, the sale of amber, the custom duties, and the perquisites and fees of the tribunals. The flourishing commercial cities were mostly situated on the Baltic and the banks of the Vistula.

Yet the quiet prosperity of the order became soon the chief cause of the pride, depravity, and licentiousness of its members. Dantzig, an old Danish colony at the mouth of the Vistula, becoming wealthy, and possessing the exclusive navigation of the river, and the maritime commerce of Poland, would not submit tamely to the exactions of the haughty order; and in 1454 this city revolted, and the people put themselves under the protection of the King of Poland. This warlike nation had, in 1382, formed a political union with the Lithuanians, by the marriage of their Princess Hedwig with the Lithuanian Grand Duke Jagellon.

The luxury and extravagance of the knights prepared their ruin. The grand master, Wallenrode, had assembled a large army on the banks of the Niemen, in 1394, for the conquest of Lithuania. There

he invited the knights to a magnificent entertainment. Waiting brothers held canopies of cloth of gold above every knight at the table; thirty courses of the choicest dainties were served in dishes of gold and silver; all the goblets were likewise of gold, and each guest was permitted to carry away his cup and plate after the feast. This glittering army was totally routed by the Lithuanians, and forced in a few months afterwards to cross the Niemen in a most deplorable condition.

After the union of Poland and Lithuania, this order, foreseeing the storm, broke the peace in 1414, and was totally defeated in the terrible battle near Tannenburg (Grünwald), in Southern Prussia, where the grand master, Ulrich of Jungingen, perished, with the greater part of the knights and thirty thousand of their vassals and mercenaries.

From that day began the rapid decline of the Deutschritters. Jagellon with his victorious Poles advanced towards the sea-shore; one province after another surrendered; Marienburg, the impregnable capital, fell; Dantzig, Elbing, and Thorn broke their chains in 1440; Western Prussia revolted in 1454, and placed itself under the protection of King Casimir IV., and when peace was concluded, in 1466, all Western Prussia became incorporated into Poland, and the Teutonic order, deprived of their finest provinces and their wealth, became themselves vassals of the Polish crown.

Yet, amid the confusion and wars on all sides of the empire, and the feuds and rivalries within, the cities of Germany were increasing and flourishing; commerce was in a prosperous condition, and consequently industry encouraged; the citizens, armed for mutual defense, were enjoying their opulence in their boisterous way; the song of the masters resounded joyfully in the shops of the workmen; and John Gutenberg of Mayence was discovering the art of printing. In 1450, the first Latin Bible was printed in Mayence. The first printing-presses abroad were established by Germans. Conrad Schweinheim and Arnold Pannarz were the first printers of Rome, in the year 1467; John Speyer, at Venice, in 1469; and Ulrich Gering and Michael Freyburger, at Paris, in 1470.

Paper had been invented or introduced into Europe some time earlier. The earliest proof of the use of linen rags in Europe for the making of paper is in the celebrated document found by Ichwandner in the monastery of Goss, in Upper Styria, which purports to be a mandate of the Emperor Frederic II., and is dated 1242.

The crafty Louis XI. of France employed every means in his power to win Mary of Burgundy for his eldest son; but the people of the Netherlands had no friendly feelings towards France; and when the

ambassadors of the Emperor Frederic arrived, and presented the letter and ring which the Princess Mary had sent to the Archduke Maximilian, the people were delighted, and Mary frankly declared, "I have fixed my mind upon him, and him will I have for my husband, and none other." Maximilian, therefore, went to the Netherlands and married Mary of Burgundy, in 1477, and soon found an opportunity to prove his valor and discretion to his new subjects in their wars against the French king, who had seized upon some places in Burgundy. Maximilian defeated Louis at Guinegast, in 1479, and in all probability would have recovered all that belonged to Burgundy but for the sad bereavement of his beloved Mary, who died in 1482, in consequence of a fall from her horse when fowling. The zeal of the Netherlanders then grew cold in the protracted war, and a peace was concluded.

Frederic could afford no assistance to his son, because he was so hard pressed by the Turks, who made their way into Carinthia and Carniola, and Matthias, King of Hungary, took possession of Vienna in 1485. Frederic made his escape, seeking a temporary asylum in convents and cities; sometimes obliged to ask a ride, when on the high-road, from some peasant with his team of oxen. Yet his dignity never forsook him, and again the current of opinion turned in his favor, so that in 1486 the electors assembled, and the faithful and now venerable Albert, the Achilles of Brandenburg, procured the election of Maximilian as emperor. The last years of Frederic were cheered by the successes of his son, to whom he finally intrusted all the cares of the empire in 1490, and retired to Linz, where he pursued his favorite studies of astrology, alchemy, and botany till the end of his life. He was temperate, devout, parsimonious, scrupulous about trifles, simple in his habits, pacific in his disposition, and naturally averse to exertion or excitement. He lived long enough to obtain the restoration of his hereditary estates by the death of King Matthias and a compact made with his successor, Ladislas VII., great-grandson of the Emperor Sigismund. Frederic died at Linz, August 19, 1493, after a reign of fifty-four years, and was buried at Vienna. His wife was Eleanor of Portugal.

CONTEMPORARIES OF ALBERT II. AND FREDERIC III.

ENGLAND.

Henry VI. became king at the age of nine months, under the protection of his uncles, Humphrey, Duke of Gloucester, Protector of England, and John, Duke of Bedford, Regent of France. From pos-

sessing every town in France, except Orleans, the English lost every town except Calais. Henry was gentle, pious, and well-intentioned, but too weak to act for himself.

Margaret of Anjou, wife of Henry VI., was the daughter of René of Anjou and Isabella of Lorraine, a direct descendant of Charlemagne. Cardinal Beaufort, who had superintended the education of Henry VI., was fully aware of the want of energy and decision in his character, which rendered it desirable to provide him with a consort whose intellectual powers would be likely to supply his constitutional defects, and whose acquirements might render her a suitable companion for so learned and refined a prince. In Margaret of Anjou all these requisites were united with beauty, eloquence, and every feminine charm calculated to win unbounded influence over the plastic mind of the youthful sovereign. Her emblem flower was the daisy. During Henry's illness the Duke of York managed to get the office of Protector, and then laid claim to the crown, in consequence of the marriage of his ancestor, Richard of Cambridge, with the sister of Roger Mortimer, the heiress, though of the third generation, of Lionel, Duke of Clarence, thus uniting the claims of the *third* and *fifth* sons of Edward III. in opposition to those of Henry VI., a descendant of John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster, the *fourth* son.

Thus began the feud between the houses of York and Lancaster. It is to be observed that no trait of fierce or warlike propensities was ever manifested by Margaret until the rights of her child were at stake. She fought Richard, Duke of York, who was killed at the battle of Wakefield, and his heir, Edward, then took command of the Yorkists. After sustaining her husband in twelve battles, both he and her son were murdered in 1461, and she herself imprisoned. Edward of Lancaster, her son, was stabbed by the Dukes of Gloucester, Clarence, and others. Margaret was ransomed by the gift of Provence to Louis XI. by her father. After the death of her father, she sold all her rights to Lorraine, Maine, Provence, and Bar to Louis XI. for a pension of six thousand livres. She died in the fifty-first year of her age, and was buried in the cathedral of Angers, the capital of Anjou and the residence of its dukes.

Edward IV., the first of the House of York, was licentious, cruel, and tyrannical. His reign was distracted by the internal wars maintained by the undaunted spirit of Margaret of Anjou. During his time the art of printing was introduced into England by William Caxton. Edward died in 1483.

Elizabeth Woodville, wife of Edward, granddaughter of the Duke

of Bedford, was maid of honor to Margaret of Anjou, and married for her first husband Sir John Gray, a cavalier firmly attached to the House of Lancaster. He lost his life at the second battle of St. Albans. Elizabeth, some time afterwards, waited for Edward IV., who was hunting near her mother's castle, under a noble tree, still called the Queen's Oak, and holding her fatherless boys by the hand, threw herself at his feet, and pleaded earnestly for the inheritance of her children. Her downcast looks and mournful beauty gained not only her suit, but the heart of the conqueror, and they were secretly married in May, 1464. Elizabeth from first to last held potent sway over the mind of her husband, but she seldom had a wise or good end in view; the advancement of her own relatives, and the depreciation of her husband's friends and family, were her chief objects. Margaret of Anjou and Elizabeth founded Queen's College, Cambridge. After the death of Edward IV., and the murder of her sons in the Tower, she fell ill. Dr. Lewis, a priest-physician, visited her in her illness, and likewise attended Margaret Beaufort, mother of Henry Tudor, Earl of Richmond, then an exile in Bretagne. The plan of uniting this last scion of the House of Lancaster with her daughter, the Princess Elizabeth of York, was first suggested to the desolate queen by Dr. Lewis. She eagerly embraced the proposition, and the good physician becoming, by means of daily visits, the medium of negotiation between the two mothers, the queen finally agreed to recognize Henry Tudor as King of England if he were able to dispossess the usurper and obtain the hand of her daughter. The queen-dowager died in 1492. Her illustrious brother, Anthony Woodville, Lord Rivers, patronized the infant art of printing under Caxton. Her children were Edward V.; Richard, Duke of York; Elizabeth, who married Henry VII., and Mary and Cicely.

Edward V. was thirteen years old at the death of his father, and reigned three months. His uncle Richard, Duke of Gloucester, gained possession of the young king and his brother, caused them to be confined, and afterwards murdered, in the Tower, and became king himself, under the title of Richard III.

Richard III., having gained the crown, in 1483, by fraud and violence, kept it only two years, being finally defeated and slain at Bosworth Field by Henry Tudor, Earl of Richmond, who was a lineal descendant of John of Gaunt. With Richard ends the line of the Plantagenet kings of England.

Anne of Warwick, wife of Richard III., was the second daughter of Richard Neville, surnamed the "King-making Earl of Warwick."

Her elder and only sister, Isabel, married the Duke of Clarence, whom his brother, Richard III., condemned to be drowned in a butt of malmsey. When Anne was seventeen, she was married to Edward of Lancaster, son of Henry VI., then in his nineteenth year. After his death, Anne avoided Richard III. as much as possible, nevertheless he found her and forced her to marry him. After the birth of their son, Edward, ambition for this child induced Richard to murder his nephews. But punishment quickly followed this wickedness, for his son died when only ten years old. In less than a year after, Anne also died, and was buried near the altar in Westminster Abbey.

FRANCE.

Louis XI. came to the throne in 1461. His deceitfulness and ingratitude involved him in almost constant wars with his great vassals and foreign powers. His chief enemy and rival was Charles the Bold, Duke of Burgundy. The policy of Louis, the first king, entitled "His most Christian Majesty," favored the burgher and trading classes at the expense of the nobles, while he humbled the power of the crown-princes. He was a crafty ruler, who managed the finances well, and succeeded by policy and good luck in recovering for the crown the territories of Maine, Anjou, Provence, and a portion of Burgundy. That he was exceedingly superstitious may be seen by the following prayer to Our Lady of Clery, copied from the old chronicles of the times:

"Ah! my good Lady, my gentle mistress, my only friend, in whom alone I have resource, I pray you to supplicate God in my behalf, and to be my advocate with him that he may pardon me the death of my brother, whom I caused to be poisoned by that wicked Abbot of Saint John. I confess my guilt to thee as my good patroness and mistress. But then, what could I do? he was perpetually causing disorder in my kingdom. Cause me, then, to be pardoned, my good Lady, and I know what a reward I will give thee."

His first wife was Margaret, daughter of the first James Stuart, King of Scotland, and their marriage was celebrated at Tours in 1436, while Louis was dauphin. Margaret is represented as having been clever and intellectual, and possessed great taste for the fine arts, which she loved and cultivated. Being the victim of some court intrigue, it affected her so sensibly that she fell seriously ill in consequence, and became so weary and disgusted with her existence that, on being offered some remedy, she repulsed it, saying, "Fie on life! Do not speak anything more to me about it." She died childless at Châlons-sur-Marne, in 1445, aged twenty.

His second wife was Charlotte of Savoy, daughter of Louis II., Duke of Savoy, and of Anne of Cyprns. The dauphin, who, during the reign of his father, Charles VII., lived in disgrace at Dauphiné, and whose limited resources did not permit him to sustain the dignity of his rank as hereditary prince, thought it advisable to seek the hand of Charlotte of Savoy, who had been promised by her father a dower of six hundred thousand gold crowns. She was cheerfully accorded to Louis, and they were married at Chambéry, in 1451; but Charlotte was not a more happy wife than her predecessor, though she possessed greater personal advantages. She was intelligent, modest, and exemplary, but she had not sufficient energy to moderate and soften the harsh and selfish Louis, who, although he professed a thorough contempt for the female sex, nevertheless excepted his wife, Charlotte of Savoy. He conducted her several times to Orleans, Tours, and Paris. On one of her visits to Paris she received a most brilliant welcome; an elegant boat awaited her, on board of which a magnificent collation was provided, and among other refreshments was a stag composed of sweetmeats, around the neck of which the queen's arms were suspended. She landed at the Celestins, where the then customary performance of the Holy Passion was enacted; after which she proceeded on horseback to the palace of Tournelles, where another grand entertainment was provided for her. Louis even, at times, suffered her to offer advice in the council; and he enjoined his son to honor the queen, although he afterwards encouraged him to disobey her. Notwithstanding Louis XI. acknowledged his wife's merits, he often treated her with great indifference, and committed many gross infidelities. Queen Charlotte offended her husband by her natural affection for her country, Savoy, as also by her attachment to Burgundy, whose duke was Louis's great enemy. At length he confined her in the castle of Amboise, and allowed her merely what was absolutely necessary for her food and clothing. After a wearisome union of twenty years, the king died; but Charlotte did not long enjoy her liberty, following him to the tomb three months after, in the year 1483. This queen had six children,—Charles VIII., who succeeded his father; Francis, Joachim, and Louisa, who died young; Anne de Beaujeu, who was regent during her brother's minority; and Jane, wife of Louis XII. Charlotte was buried at Our Lady of Clery, by the side of her husband.

Charles VIII., surnamed *the Courteous*, acquired Bretagne by marriage, and made many conquests in Italy, which he speedily lost. He was generous, gentle, and forgiving, but so deficient in judgment that he was continually guilty of unjustifiable actions. One day while at

Amboise, the place of his birth, whose palace he was rebuilding, intending to decorate it with the splendid furniture, statues, and paintings which he had brought from Italy, he was leading the queen through a low gallery, and struck his head on the top. He took no notice of the blow, but entered into conversation with one of the visitors, saying that "he hoped he should never commit another willful sin as long as he lived." As he spoke these words he fell senseless to the ground; and being laid on a bed, in a short time expired, A.D. 1498. He was in the twenty-eighth year of his age, and with him ended the direct male succession of the House of Valois.

Anne of France, Regent. Perhaps the only claim to sincerity that Louis XI. possessed was in his attachment to his daughter Anne, who was no less celebrated for her beauty than for her profound genius, sagacity, courage, and political talents; and the sceptre was never wielded with greater vigor than during her regency. She became the wife of Peter II., Duke of Bourbon, and her father gave her one hundred thousand gold crowns on her marriage. The Sire of Beaujeu's mildness and Anne's policy so captivated the suspicious mind of Louis XI. that they alone were admitted into the chateau of Plessis-les-Tours, whose gates were closed against all Frenchmen. From the heights of his donjons the dying despot declared his daughter Anne regent and guardian to her young brother Charles, to the exclusion of his wife and the princes of the blood-royal, among whom the Duke of Orleans was much disappointed at the decision. Madame de Beaujeu required all the assistance of her great talents to enable her to preserve this authority, which was for the first time confided to a daughter of France. Had her two great rivals, Louis, Duke of Orleans, who was heir to the throne in the event of her brother's death, and the Duke of Bourbon, her brother-in-law, been united, Anne would infallibly have lost her power. She gained the esteem of the nobles and people by a moderate government; she suppressed many heavy taxes, and released and recalled many persons unjustly imprisoned and exiled by her capricious and despotic father; and, at the same time, satisfied them by giving up to public judgment three ministers, vile agents and intimates of the late king, who had abused his confidence and incited him to the committal of many crimes, the catalogue of which was endless. Oliver le Dain was hanged; Dayac was publicly flogged, after which his ears were cut off and his tongue pierced through; and John Cottier, another vampire of the court, and doctor of Louis XI., who had amassed immense wealth by imposing on the monarch's credulity and fear of death, was condemned to pay

an enormous fine, which left him only a moderate subsistence for the remainder of his days. As the last stroke of her policy, Anne succeeded in marrying the king to Anne, heiress of Bretagne, by which union the duchy of Bretagne became united to France. Charles VIII. had been for some time affianced to Margaret, daughter of Maximilian, Archduke of Austria, and of Mary of Burgundy; and although this princess had the title of dauphiness, the regent sent her back to her father, and the monarch espoused Anne of Brittany in 1491. After this event she retired from public life, giving no further advice to the king, except on the occasion of his expedition into Italy, of which she disapproved. On the accession of the Duke of Orleans to the throne as Louis XII., he never troubled her retreat, but generously forgot all her severity. Some one recalling these wrongs to his memory, he replied, "It is not for the King of France to avenge the injuries done to the Duke of Orleans." Madame de Beaujeu became a widow in 1503, and died at the château of Chantelle, in Bourbonnais, in 1522, aged sixty. Her only daughter, Susan, was married to the Constable of Bourbon, who was afterwards celebrated for his defection under Francis I. Madame de Beaujeu's private character was without blemish.

The wife of Charles VIII. was Anne of Dreux, daughter of the last sovereign duke of Bretagne, Francis II., by whose death she became sole heiress of that duchy. This princess was born at Nantes in 1476, and, though remarkably tall, was graceful and beautiful; she had, however, one leg shorter than the other, but this defect was hardly perceptible. Her mother, Margaret de Foix, having no other child, paid undivided attention to her education, which she confided to Madame de Laval. There were several competitors for her hand,—Alain d'Albret, father of John, King of Navarre; the Duke of Orleans; the Prince of Wales, son of Edward IV.; the Count de Rohan, whose device was, "I do not deign to be a duke, I cannot be a king, I am a Rohan;" and the Emperor Maximilian, to whom she had been affianced, but whom she declared she would never marry. Anne was really attached to the Duke of Orleans, who had taken refuge at her father's court when he revolted against the regent, Anne de Beaujeu; but he was already married to the sister of Charles VIII., Jane of France, and, moreover, was taken prisoner at the battle of Saint Aubyn, and kept a close captive in the great tower of Bourges. Maximilian being rejected, and his daughter Margaret sent back to her father, was a double affront to Austria. In 1491, Anne was married to Charles VIII., at Langeais, in Touraine, and accompanied her husband to Plessis-les-Tours, where the court was then held. She afterwards proceeded to

Paris, where she was received with great splendor. The coronation took place at Saint Denis in 1492, and during the ceremony the Duke of Orleans, whom Charles had received into favor, supported the crown upon the brow of the queen whom he so tenderly loved. The joy on the occasion was universal: Anne was called the queen-duchess, and returned to Paris amidst universal acclamations. The people's rejoicing was on account of the aggrandizement of the kingdom, and the queen at once obtained from the king the confirmation of the Bretons' privileges. Anne had four children, all of whom died before her husband. Until this period the mourning habit of queens had been white, but after the death of Charles Anne adopted the deepest black, ordered a magnificent funeral, and erected a superb mausoleum to his memory. The administration of the government of Brittany now devolved upon her, and she willingly applied herself to it, and enacted many salutary laws.

SPAIN.

Ferdinand the Catholic, fifth of Castile, second of Aragon, third of Naples, and second of Sicily, married, at Valladolid, in 1469, Isabella, sister of Henry IV. of Castile. After Henry's death, in 1474, the Cortes proclaimed Isabella and her husband Ferdinand joint sovereigns. In 1479, Ferdinand becoming king of Aragon on the death of his father, the two kingdoms of Aragon and Castile were united in the persons of Ferdinand and Isabella. Isabella, however, as long as she lived, maintained her position as Queen of Castile, and allowed her husband no other share in the government than the privilege of affixing his signature to the decrees and of uniting his arms with her own. Ferdinand's whole reign was an uninterrupted series of successful wars. He suppressed the banditti and Castilian outlaws, and broke the power of the feudal nobility by encouraging cities and towns to make themselves independent of the nobles, who were deprived of many important privileges, and, among other humiliations, were subjected to the ordinary tribunals of justice. The establishment of the Inquisition, in 1478–1480, although primarily and mainly intended to further "religious" ends, likewise helped to lessen the influence of the nobles. Ferdinand also strengthened his power by vesting in himself and his successors the grand mastership of the military orders of Calatrava, Alcantara, and Santiago. In all his schemes he was ably seconded by Isabella, and by the celebrated Cardinal Ximenes. The year 1492 was the most brilliant in his reign, and is one of the most important in the history of the material progress of the world. It was signalized by the discovery of America by Christopher Columbus, though the honor of

having aided the great navigator belongs not to Ferdinand, but to Isabella. The same year witnessed the capture of Granada, and the retreat of the last Moorish monarch into Africa. Ferdinand, who had a true Spanish hatred of heresy, immediately issued an order for the expulsion of the Jews from the conquered kingdom; and in consequence one hundred and sixty thousand—some say eight hundred thousand—of his subjects were compelled to find new homes in those countries of Europe where Jews were tolerated. This was followed, several years after, by the persecution and expulsion of the Moors,—an act still more unwise than the former, for the Moors of Granada were unquestionably the most industrious, civilized, and refined inhabitants of the Peninsula. Ferdinand was as successful abroad as at home. He was victorious over Alphonso V., King of Portugal, while his general, Gonzalvo de Cordova, twice wrested Naples from the French,—the second time in 1503, after which it remained permanently in Ferdinand's possession. In the following year Isabella died, and in 1505 he married Germaine de Foix, a niece of Louis XII. of France. He took part in the famous League of Cambrai, formed against Venice in 1508, made himself master of various towns and fortresses in Africa, and, in 1512, conquered the kingdom of Navarre, thus becoming master of Spain from the Pyrenees to the rock of Gibraltar. He died at Madrigalejo, January 23, 1516, and was succeeded by his grandson, Charles V. To Ferdinand and Isabella Spain was indebted for her unity and greatness as a nation; and in the no less skillful hands of their successor she exercised an imperial influence over Europe which it required Luther and the Reformation to check.

ARCHITECTURE.

Three different styles of architecture prevailed in Europe,—the Arabian, a peculiar style formed after Greek models; the Moorish, which originated in Spain, out of the remains of Roman edifices; and the modern Gothic, which originated in the kingdom of the Visigoths, in Spain, through the mixture of the Arabian and Moorish architecture, and flourished from the eleventh to the fifteenth century.

The Germans were unacquainted with architecture until the time of Charlemagne, who favored the Byzantine style, then common in Italy. In the middle of the thirteenth century began the modern Gothic, or German style, which we may also call the *romantic*, since it was formed by the romantic spirit of the Middle Ages. Growing up in Germany, it attained its perfection in the towers of the minster of Strasburg, in the cathedral of Cologne, in the church of St. Stephen in Vienna, in

the cathedral of Erfurt, in the church of St. Sebaldus in Nuremberg, in the church of St. Elizabeth in Marburg, etc., and extended itself from thence to France, England, Spain, and Italy. ^

In the eleventh century Byzantine architects built the cathedral of Pisa and the church of St. Mark in Venice. But in the twelfth century a German architect named Wilhelm, and in the thirteenth, Jacob, surnamed *Zapo*, who died in 1252, and his pupil or son, Arnolf, are mentioned as having built churches and convents in Florence. And if so few of these gifted men are not known to us individually, and by name, it is because they worked for the honor of God, and not for profit and reputation. However, it is to be regretted that the name of the architect who designed the splendid structure of the cathedral of Cologne has been lost. One Master Gerhard, who was living in 1252, is the builder earliest named, but nothing is known of him. *Erwin of Steinbach*, who worked on the cathedral of Strasburg,—who designed its spire, that admirable masterpiece of airy open-work,—died in 1318, when the work was only half finished. It was continued by his son, and afterwards by his daughter Sabina. Yet the tower was not completed till 1439, long after their death.

ARTISTS. CONTEMPORARIES OF THE EMPEROR FREDERIC III.

Filippo Brunelleschi, born at Florence in 1377, first learned the art of a goldsmith, next that of a sculptor, and finally devoted himself to architecture. In 1420, it was proposed to finish the cathedral of Santa Maria del Fiore, founded in 1290, in his native city, and which only wanted a dome. The work was intrusted to him, and finished, with the exception of the lantern, with which he intended to crown the whole; but was prevented by his death, in 1444. This dome, measured diametrically, is the largest in the world, and served as a model to Michael Angelo for that of St. Peter's. Besides this chef-d'œuvre, he executed several other great works, such as the churches of San Spirito and San Lorenzo, and the designs of the Pitti Palace, which originated the beautiful style of Tuscan palace-architecture in the fifteenth century.

Lorenzo Ghiberti was born at Florence in 1378, and became a skillful goldsmith. The Florentine guild of merchants chose him, with seven other artists, to compete for the execution of a gate in bronze, to suit that executed by Andrea Pisano in the baptistery of Florence in 1340. The subject of the design was the *sacrifice of Isaac*, to be executed in bas-relief as a model for one of the panels. The judges found a difficulty in deciding between Brunelleschi, Donatelli, and

Ghiberti; but the two former generously proclaimed the superiority of Ghiberti's design. When he had completed this great work, his fellow-citizens intrusted him with the execution of another gate, to emulate the beauty and colossal dimensions of the two already adorning the baptistery. From Michael Angelo Ghiberti received a noble tribute of admiration when the great artist asserted that "*the two gates were worthy of Paradise.*" Ghiberti died at Florence in 1455.

Donatelli, born in Florence in 1383, was one of the restorers of the art of sculpture in Italy. His first great works in marble were the "Saint Peter" and the "Saint Paul" in the church of St. Michael, in his native city. The whole tendency of his genius was towards a reproduction of the antique; and he sometimes reminds one of the glorious productions of ancient Greece.

Hubert and Jan van Eyck were born, between 1366 and 1400, at Maas-Eyck, and they chiefly resided at Bruges and Ghent, and became the founders of the Flemish school of painting. The honor of being the inventors of oil-painting is claimed for them, though sufficient evidence has been adduced to show that it was practiced previously. Before their time, the custom was to paint with gums or other substances of an adhesive nature dissolved in water; and if not inventors, they were at least the first who brought into notice and perfected the mode of mixing colors with oil, or some medium of which oil was the chief ingredient; while for transparent and brilliant coloring and minute finish their works have never been surpassed. The masterpieces of these brothers are for the most part in the cities of Ghent, Bruges, Antwerp, Berlin, Munich, and Paris. Their scholars, who flourished in Frederic's time, were Justus of Ghent, Hugo Vander Goes, and Hans Hemling or Memling, the best scholar of the Van Eyck school.

Thomas à Kempis, born at Kempis, near Cologne, wrote, among other works, the celebrated "Imitation of Christ." He died in 1471.

Jerome Savonarola, born at Ferrara in 1452, went to Florence in 1489, where he attacked vice, infidelity, and false religion, sparing neither pope, priests, monks, nor princes, and through his eloquence obtained almost boundless influence. But at length he was seized, strangled, and burned, in 1498.

A satire, called Eulenspiegel (Owl's Mirror), won great fame during these times, being a specimen of the rough, striking, North-German peasant wit.

In 1498, a famous satire, in the epic form, appeared at Lubec, in Low German, in the Frisian dialect, under the title of *Rynke de Vos*,—German, *Reinike Fuchs*,—Renard the Fox. It is an admirable satire

on the intrigues practiced at a weak court. The people's wit with sharp clutches tore off the mantles which concealed the vices and follies of kings and princes. The characters are animals, and the arch-rogue is the fox.

Nothing is known with certainty respecting the author, who calls himself "Henry von Alkmaar, schoolmaster and tutor of the Duke of Lorraine," and pretends to have translated it from the French. Rolenhagen thinks that Nicholas Baumann, born at Emden in 1450, was the author. He was in various public employments, and a doctor of law. The wrongs which he suffered at the court of the Duke of Juliers are said to have induced him to write this poem. The English prose translation ought not to be taken as a specimen of the original, in which humor and wit abound.

Philippe de Comines, Sieur d'Argenton, a French statesman, and the author of some very valuable *Memoirs*, was born at the castle of Comines, not far from Lille, in 1445. After receiving a careful education, he passed into the court of Burgundy, about 1466, and attached himself particularly to Charles the Bold, then Count de Charolais. In 1472, Comines, who was anything but punctilious in his notions of honor, entered the service of Louis XI., the rival and enemy of Charles, who immediately covered him with honors, and made him one of his most confidential advisers. He proved himself a very suitable agent for carrying out the designs of the crafty monarch; but after the death of Louis, by his adherence to the party of the Duke of Orleans, he incurred the displeasure of the government of Anne of Beaujeu, and was sentenced to a forfeiture of a fourth of his estates and to ten years' banishment. This punishment, however, does not seem to have been carried out, for after a few years we find him again employed in important affairs of diplomacy. Though engaged in the service of Charles VIII. and the Duke of Orleans, afterwards Louis XII., he failed to win the confidence of these masters. He died at his castle of Argenton in 1509.

Comines's *Memoirs* are admirably written, and afford abundant proof that he possessed a clear, acute, and vigorous mind. He seems to have looked keenly into the heart of every man who crossed him in life, and with cool, severe anatomy dissects him for the benefit of posterity.

Christopher Columbus was born at or near Genoa, about the year 1436. Though virtually the greatest man of his era, there is little definite information about his family and early life. Settling in Lisbon in 1470, he there married the daughter of an Italian named Palestrello, who had distinguished himself as a navigator in the Portuguese service,

and with her obtained some valuable charts, journals, and memoranda. Lisbon was at this time the headquarters of all that was speculative and adventurous in the way of geographical discovery; and here Columbus first appears to have conceived the idea of land to the westward. With the view of better qualifying himself for his great enterprise, Columbus made several voyages to the Azores, the Canaries, and the coast of Guinea,—then the limit of European navigation on the Atlantic. He laid his scheme before John II. of Portugal about 1482, then went to Genoa, then to Spain, but it was not until after seven long years, during which Columbus applied to other courts, that Queen Isabella patronized him, and he set sail from Palos, August, 1492, and on the 12th of October discovered San Salvador, one of the Bahama Islands. He made four voyages, discovering Cuba, Hayti, Jamaica, and landed in South America at the mouth of the Orinoco. He died in Valladolid in 1506. Biography furnishes no parallel to the life of Columbus; great men there have been who have met with disappointments and injustice, but there is perhaps no other instance of a great man whom disappointments and injustice did not dishearten and disgust; who had his greatness recognized in his lifetime, and yet was robbed of the emoluments to which he was entitled; and who, after death, had the honor he had so hardly won conferred upon another. Ferdinand, to make up somewhat for his injustice, gave Columbus a pompous funeral, and erected a magnificent monument to his memory.

MAXIMILIAN I. A.D. 1493-1519.

"Tene mensuram et respice finem." (Keep within bounds, and think of the end.)

MAXIMILIAN I. was born at Neustadt, about fifty miles south of Vienna, in 1459. It was also the birthplace of his father, Frederic III., who built there the ducal castle of the Babenberg family. Over the entrance is the statue of Frederic, whose favorite and bombastic motto, A. E. I. O. U., is inscribed on different parts of the walls, with the date 1445. The Babenbergers were originally from Eastern Franconia, and divided the power in the empire with the Conradians at Worms, until they broke out into a deadly dispute and fight, in which the Babenbergers were completely defeated, and Count Conrad mounted the throne, in 911, as Emperor Conrad I. Bamberg, to which they gave their name, was originally called Babenberg. In the time of Frederic Barbarossa, we find this warlike family defending the eastern frontiers towards Hungary, as archdukes of Austria.

Maximilian spent his youth in the wars of his father with Podiebrad of Bohemia and Matthias Corvinus of Hungary, and others, and became an excellent horseman, tiler, and hunter, gallant, chivalrous, and adventurous. His fine and stately personal appearance, in some respects, reminded one of his ancestor, Rudolph of Hapsburg. He was enterprising, politic, brave, learned, and of a noble and generous temper; yet his best plans often failed through excessive ardor and want of perseverance. In 1493 he defeated the Turks, who had invaded the empire, and during the remainder of his life he was able to repel them from his hereditary territories; but he could not prevent the separation of Switzerland from the German Empire, in 1498 and 1499.

In 1494, Maximilian married, for his second wife, Bianca Sforza, daughter of the murdered Duke of Milan, Galeazzo Maria, receiving three hundred thousand ducats from her uncle and guardian, the bloody Ludovico Moro, on whom he bestowed Milan, the heritage of the brother of his bride. The wife of the lawful heir, a Neapolitan princess, sought for aid from her native country, and the usurper Moro thereupon prevailed upon the King of France to renew the old claims of the House of Anjou to Naples, and to enter on an Italian campaign. This led to those long Italian wars, in which, during Maximilian's lifetime, Charles VIII., Louis XII., and Francis I. of France, Ferdinand the Catholic of Spain, Popes Alexander VI. and Julius II., the empire, Switzerland, the republic of Venice, and Naples were principally engaged.



MAXIMILIEN I.

His measures in the domestic affairs of the German Empire, which for three hundred years had been the theatre of barbarism and anarchy, were more creditable. What his predecessors had so long vainly attempted, Maximilian successfully accomplished. In 1495 he had put an end to internal troubles and violence by the perpetual peace of the empire, decreed by the diet of Worms. To supply the defects of the German laws, and prevent the gross abuses of justice, he adopted, at the same diet, the Roman and canon laws as subsidiary authorities in the decision of differences, and instituted the Imperial Chamber as the supreme tribunal of the empire. He put a stop to the monstrous abuses of the Heilige Vehme, although he was unable entirely to abolish those secret tribunals. The institution of the German Circles, which were intended to secure internal peace and safety, originated from him, as did many other useful institutions for the improvement of the government and the promotion of science and art.

Maximilian was sadly deficient in the administration of his finances, which often deprived him of the fruits of his most fortunate enterprises. On one occasion, his father presented him, when a boy, with a plate of fruit and a purse of money. He kept the fruit, and gave the money away to his servants. "That boy will become a spendthrift!" sighed his father. But Maximilian replied, "I do not wish to be a king over money, but over the people, and those who have money." In this respect he stood far behind the artful, cold, calculating kings of France and Spain.

He spoke nearly all the languages of Europe, and left behind him several works which he had written in German. He was also a poet, and the author of a circumstantial but romantic account of his own life, under the title "*Der weiss Kunig*," by Herr Treitzsaurwein, his private secretary, with wood-cuts by Hans Burgkmair.

Henry Isaak, who opened the glorious series of the German composers, was the leader of his musical band. He patronized the painters of Nuremberg,—Martin Schön, Michael Wohlgemuth and his pupil Albert Dürer, and Lucas Cranach; the sculptor Adam Kraft, the brass-founder Peter Vischer and his sons, the wood-carver Veit Stoss, the glass-painter Hirschvogel, and the poet and minstrel Hans Sachs. Maximilian appointed Albert Dürer his court-painter, with an annuity of one hundred florins; and Charles V. confirmed the same in a document still to be seen in the Nuremberg archives. Lucas Cranach visited Palestine with the Elector Frederic the Wise of Saxony, who made him his court-painter in 1504, and in 1508 the elector made him a grant of armorial bearings, having for a crest a winged serpent. Cranach

was closely connected with the Reformers, and the intimate friend of Luther, whose portrait he painted several times.

In general, Maximilian greatly contributed to shape the period of transition from the Middle Ages to modern times. Many foreign historians have often undervalued him; but he has always been a favorite with the Germans, who still relate with pride his knightly deeds and his bold exploits as a chamois-hunter. The Archduke Sigismund of Tyrol died in 1496, and Tyrol came into the Emperor's family. Soon after a war broke out between the Wittelbachers, and Maximilian obtained a large tract of Bavaria.

His son, Philip the Handsome, was brought up by the people of Ghent, as their future duke; and when his father demanded him, they refused to give him up. At the battle of Bruges, in 1488, he conquered, and, after getting possession of him, married him to Joanna, heiress of Ferdinand the Catholic of Spain. Philip died before his father, Maximilian, leaving two sons, Charles and Ferdinand, and four daughters,—Mary, who married Louis II. of Hungary; Eleonore, who married Emanuel the Great, King of Portugal; Catherine, who married his successor, John III. of Portugal; and Elizabeth, or Isabella, who married Christian II., King of Denmark and Sweden.

Maximilian's daughter Margaret was sent to France to be educated as a wife for the dauphin, Charles VIII. of France. Charles, however, married Anne of Bretagne, and sent Margaret back to her father. This resulted in a war, and nearly all the dower was recovered.

Maximilian hoped to have his grandson Charles acknowledged as his successor before he died, but was unable to effect it. Wherever he traveled during the last year of his life, he carried his coffin along with him. He died in the old castle of Prince Auersperg, at Wels, not far from Linz, on the 12th of January, 1519, and was buried, in accordance with his wish, at Neustadt, beneath the altar of the church, by the side of his beloved mother, Eleanor.

His first wife was Mary of Burgundy, the mother of his children Philip the Handsome and Margaret, who married Philibert II., Duke of Savoy. His second wife was Bianca Sforza of Milan.

The splendid cenotaph in honor of Maximilian, in the Franciscan church at Innspruck, was erected by his grandson, the Emperor Ferdinand I. Innspruck was a favorite residence of Maximilian, and in his last will he ordered this Franciscan church to be built in the Renaissance style.

Maximilian left a number of treatises on military science, gardening, the chase, and other subjects.

CONTEMPORARIES OF MAXIMILIAN.

ENGLAND.

Henry VII. came to the throne in 1485. His reign was beneficial to his country. Being conducted on pacific principles, it gave an opportunity to the nation to flourish by its internal resources and commerce. In 1497 and 1498, John Cabot and his son Sebastian sailed under a commission from Henry VII., and upon their discoveries and explorations in America England based her claims to all the region from Labrador to Florida. Henry found England very poor, and left it very rich.

Elizabeth of York, surnamed the Good, wife of Henry VII., was one of the most learned women of her time. They were married in Westminster, January, 1486. It is said that the anthem of "God save the King" was written for the occasion. A very tender friendship existed between the Countess Margaret, the king's learned and accomplished mother, and her royal daughter-in-law. The favorite motto of Elizabeth was, "Humble and reverent." Her active benevolence and ever-liberal hand probably formed a counteracting influence to the avaricious propensities of her husband. Elizabeth died on the day on which she completed her thirty-seventh year. Henry survived her seven years. They were both buried in his magnificent chapel in Westminster Abbey. Their children were Arthur, who died soon after his marriage with Katharine of Aragon, daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella of Spain; Margaret, who married James IV. of Scotland; Henry, Duke of York, afterwards Henry VIII.; and Mary, who married Louis XII. of France, and afterwards Charles Brandon, Duke of Suffolk.

FRANCE.

Louis XII., Duke of Orleans, succeeded to the throne in 1498. No king of France was ever more solicitous to promote the happiness of his people; and so enthusiastically was he beloved by them in return that they gave him the surname of the "Father of his People." It would have been well for him if he had not attempted to revive some claims upon Milan which he derived from his grandmother. In 1499 he sent an army into Italy, which in twenty days made him master of the duchy of Milan and the republic of Genoa. He next turned his arms against Naples, but, foreseeing opposition from Ferdinand the Catholic of Spain, proposed to that monarch to engage with him in this enterprise. Frederic of Naples, being in no condition to defend himself, abandoned his territories, and, leaving his children to the

mercy of Ferdinand, trusted himself to the generosity of Louis, who gave him a pension and made him Duke of Anjou. Naples being secured, Louis and Ferdinand from allies became enemies; and Gonzalo de Cordova, partly by the exercise of those military talents which won for him the name of the "*Great Captain*," and partly by shameful violations of the most solemn engagements, secured the entire possession of the disputed kingdom to his equally perfidious master. In 1504, Louis resigned all his right and title to the kingdom of Naples, as a part of the dower of his niece, Germaine de Foix, whom Ferdinand married after the death of Isabella of Castile.

The first wife of Louis XII. was Jane of France, while he was still Duke of Orleans. This marriage was forced upon them by Louis XI., her father, whose orders none dared to disobey. Jane was amiable, but exceedingly sensitive, and, being deformed, she feared to inspire the young prince with disgust. She was worthy of a better fate, and was sincerely attached to her husband, who, out of respect for her brother, King Charles, lived with her. Jane had no children, and after the death of Charles, Louis applied to Pope Alexander VI., who granted him a divorce, and he married for his second wife Anne of Bretagne. The marriage took place in 1499, and the beautiful widow, then twenty-four years of age, reascended the throne of France amidst the acclamations of the people. The court of Anne was more brilliant than the court of France had hitherto been, and from this epoch a remarkable revolution took place in the general manners. She set an example of industry to the ladies who surrounded her, always occupying some part of the day in embroidery and elegant fancy-work, and she vigilantly observed the conduct of the princesses, so that propriety and decorum were never more respected than during her rule. Her most serious fault, in regard to the interests of France, was after the battle of Ravenna, when the ambitious Pope Julius II. was reduced to extremities. Louis XII. could have dictated the most glorious conditions for France at the gates of Rome, but the queen suffered her superstitious scruples to be taken advantage of by the artful pontiff, and a most disadvantageous treaty was concluded, in 1513, with the Pope. Anne died in 1514, at Blois, at the age of thirty-eight. The king and the Bretons deeply regretted her, and bestowed a magnificent funeral on her remains. She was buried in St. Denis, by the side of her first husband, Charles VIII. By her will her heart was sent to the Carthusian monastery at Nantes, where it was received in a golden urn, and placed in the chapel that was dedicated to the ashes of the dukes of Bretagne. She had four children by Louis, but only two survived her;

they were Claude, wife of Francis I., King of France; and Renée, who married Hercules II. d'Este, Duke of Ferrara.

It was in this year that Louis found a new enemy in Henry VIII. of England, who, having no good cause of his own, assumed the quarrel of the Emperor Maximilian, with whom he united his forces near Guinegate, and the contest which ensued, being on the part of the French more a flight than a battle, has been called "*the battle of the spurs.*" In the course of a few months, however, to cement a peace with England, Louis married Mary, the young and beautiful sister of Henry. The king, though weak and declining, gave many splendid fêtes for the entertainment of his young wife, and, to gratify her, changed his manner of living. A contemporary author says, "He was always accustomed to dine at eight o'clock, whereas now he dines at twelve; and instead of retiring to rest at six o'clock in the evening, he frequently remains up until midnight." Louis died two months after his marriage, and Mary, in 1515, was obliged to cede the throne to her husband's cousin, Francis, Count of Angoulême. Three months after, Francis I. consented to the marriage between Mary and the Duke of Suffolk, which her brother, Henry VIII., approved, notwithstanding she had been a widow so short a time; and, not long after, the union was again solemnized in England. The duchess died at the age of thirty-seven, in the year 1534, having left one daughter, who was mother of the unfortunate Lady Jane Grey.

PORUGAL.

Emanuel I., King of Portugal, styled *the Great*, and sometimes, likewise, *the Fortunate*, succeeded his father in 1495. On his accession he prepared the code of laws which bears his name, and rendered himself remarkable by his zeal and exertions in the cause of education, by his active piety, and by his predilection for the society of artists and scholars. Through his exertions Portugal became the first naval power in Europe, and the centre of the commerce of the world. He despatched Vasco da Gama to sail round the Cape of Good Hope and discover the passage to India. He commissioned Cabral to prosecute the discoveries of Vasco da Gama still further, and Corte Real to sail along the coasts of North America. The expeditions under Albuquerque put Emanuel in possession of the south coast of Africa and of the Indian Archipelago. Not satisfied with this, he opened a communication with Persia, Ethiopia, and, in 1517, with China. His reign has been termed the golden age of Portugal. At his death, in 1521, Portugal was in possession of a large fleet, strong fortresses, well-

furnished arsenals, a warlike army, a flourishing trade and commerce, and extensive colonies. Emanuel married first Isabella, the daughter of Ferdinand, and afterwards Mary of Castile, her sister, by whom he had two children,—John, who succeeded him, and Isabella, who married the Emperor Charles V. of Germany. Emanuel's third wife was Eleonore, sister of the Emperor Charles V. Emanuel's father, the wise John II., had received into his kingdom a great number of Jews, whom the intolerant reign of Ferdinand and Isabella had driven from Spain; but they were still treated with severity, notwithstanding that Emanuel had intended to extend to them greater indulgence. But in the first intoxication of his passion for his wife, the beautiful Eleonore, the old king was persuaded to proceed with such rigor against the Jews as to require them to embrace Christianity, under the penalty of being deprived of their children and made slaves. Whether they found means to prevent the execution of this cruel order, or whether Emanuel feared the effects of their despair, it is certain that he allowed them twenty years for their conversion.

POPE JULIUS II.

Giuliano della Rovere, a native of Albizola, originally a fisherman, was elevated by his uncle, Sixtus IV., to the rank of a bishop and cardinal, was appointed papal legate to France, and, in 1503, was elected Pope; and although while cardinal he had been the friend of the French, he now became their enemy. Julius was one of the most bold and aspiring pontiffs that ever sat upon the papal throne. The great object of his ambition was to drive all the "barbarians," as the Romans considered foreigners, out of Italy, and then to form a powerful state, of which the Pope was to be the head. But before driving them out, he wished to use their services to humble the proud and commercial republic of Venice, which, if suffered to retain its power, might interfere with his ambitious plans. Louis XII., the Emperor Maximilian, and Ferdinand of Spain had each some claim upon that republic, and Julius had skill enough to induce them to suspend their wars with one another and to combine their power against the Venetians. This combination was the famous League of Cambray, formed in 1508, which was successful in its object, and stripped Venice of a considerable portion of its territory. He excommunicated the Duke of Ferrara, conquered the city of Bologna, gave Navarre to Spain, commanded his army in person, and was altogether warlike in his measures. To procure means for building St. Peter's, he ordered the sale of indulgences, which was one of the immediate causes of the Reformation, so that the

Protestants may say, without paradox, that St. Peter's is the great monument of Protestantism. Connected with the plan of rebuilding St. Peter's was that of embellishing the Vatican; and, on Bramante's recommendation, Julius II. invited Raphael to Rome, in 1508, where he painted a superb suite of apartments called *La Segnatura*. Julius died in 1513.

Bramante, born in the duchy of Urbino in 1444, was noted as one of the best painters in Lombardy, but was still more noted as an architect. He built the churches of Santa Maria delle Grazie and Santa Maria presso San Satio, in Milan. After the fall of Ludovico Sforza, he went to Rome, where he was first employed by Pope Alexander VI., and afterwards by Julius II. His first great work there was to connect the Vatican Palace with the two pavilions of the Belvedere by a series of immense galleries; the second was the rebuilding of St. Peter's Church, of which he laid the foundation in 1506. When only a small portion of his plans had been realized, he died at Rome in 1514, and succeeding architects departed widely from the original design of a grand cupola over a Greek cross. He also built two palaces, the Cancellaria, and the Giraud, now Torlonia.

THE MEDICI.

If a family from the class of commoners flourishes for centuries amidst the continual vicissitudes of conflicting parties, if its influence during this time gradually becomes supreme, and it maintains this power for centuries, we can confidently conclude that the heads of the family must have been distinguished for wisdom and good fortune. Such is the case with the family of the Medici. The Medici, when they first appeared in Florentine history, in the beginning of the fourteenth century, were already rich and important, having recently acquired affluence by commerce; and they conducted themselves with so much sagacity that they soon became one of those families of which the popular oligarchy of Florence was composed. They principally contributed to the elevation of Walter de Brienne, Duke of Athens, to the head of the state, who, however, made use of his power to humble the ruling families, and caused Giovanni de Medici, who had not defended Lucca against the Pisans with sufficient firmness, to be beheaded. The Medici conspired against the duke, and he was ruined. Thenceforth we find them always in public affairs. Silvestro de Medici was gonfalonier of justice in 1378, and attained the great distinction which laid the foundation of the future influence of his house. Giovanni became gonfalonier of justice in 1421, and by his liberality won the

surname of the *father of the poor*. With his son Cosmo begins the splendid series of the celebrated Medici; and his brother Lorenzo was the ancestor of the Grand Duke of Tuscany. Cosmo laid it down as a rule never to distinguish himself in his mode of living by expense or by a splendor that would excite envy. His superfluous wealth he expended upon public buildings, with which he adorned Florence, and in a splendid munificence, not only towards his adherents, but also towards artists and learned men. It would have been easy for him, who in Europe was considered the prince of Florence, to ally himself with princes, but he married his sons and daughters to the daughters and sons of Florentine citizens. In later years the imperious Luca Pitti gave him much trouble. With wisdom he managed the foreign affairs of the republic, in its difficult relations with Naples, Milan, and Venice, in which his commercial connections with all countries and his vast credit firmly supported him. Cosmo won the honored title of the *father of his country*. His son Giovanni died before him; his other son, Piero, on account of ill health, seemed little capable of being at the head of the state. Piero's son Lorenzo, when he grew up, ruled the republic in a manner worthy of his grandfather, whom he even surpassed in wisdom and moderation, magnanimity and magnificence, but particularly in his active zeal for the arts and sciences. By alliances with Venice and Milan he protected Florence against the machinations of the Pope and the King of Naples. By his honorable and wise policy he placed the balance of power in Italy on a footing which, until his death, insured to her full security and ample scope to extend and confirm her prosperity. In the long peace which his wisdom procured for the republic he entertained the Florentines with elegant and splendid festivals, and himself with the society of the most distinguished literati of his age, whom his fame and his invitation had attracted to Florence, and his princely munificence rewarded. He increased the Medicean library, so rich in manuscripts, founded by his grandfather Cosmo in 1471. He also opened a school of the arts of design, in a palace adorned with ancient statues and excellent paintings. All who in this age had gained a reputation in Florence for great talents shared his patronage. Lorenzo was therefore surnamed the Magnificent. Honored by all the princes of Europe, beloved by his fellow-citizens, he died in 1492, and with him died the glory of his country. Lorenzo left three sons,—Piero, married to Alfonsina Orsini; Giovanni, at the age of fourteen cardinal, and afterwards Pope Leo X.; and Giuliano, Duke of Nemours. Piero, the new head of the state, was wholly unqualified for the place. He

lost his life in the battle of the Garigliano, where he was with the French army in 1504. In 1513, his brother, the Cardinal Giovanni, by an insurrection raised by the popular preacher Jerome Savonarola, obtained a re-establishment in his native city, and when he became Pope, in 1514, he elevated his family again to its pristine splendor.

Cardinal Ximenes. Francisco Ximenes, Cardinal, Archbishop of Toledo, and Prime Minister of Spain, a great statesman, to whom Spain is very much indebted, was born in 1437, in a village of Old Castile. He was father confessor of Queen Isabella of Castile, and in 1495 became Archbishop of Toledo. He founded in 1499 a university at Alcalá de Henares, and undertook some years after an edition of the Old Testament. In 1514 he published an edition of the New Testament in the original tongue. He gave excellent rules for his clergy, and reformed the mendicant orders in Spain. After the death of Isabella, Philip the Handsome, son of the Emperor Maximilian, received the kingdom of Castile in right of his wife, Joanna, the sole heiress of her mother. This gave rise to disputes between him and his father-in-law Ferdinand, which were settled by Ximenes. In 1506, Philip died, and Ferdinand became regent of Castile for his grandson Charles V., who was a minor. Ximenes now received from the Pope a cardinal's hat, was appointed grand inquisitor of Spain, and had a great share in the affairs of state. But, knowing Ferdinand's jealous disposition, he withdrew from court, and forming the project of converting the Moors, in 1509, crossed over to Africa. He expended the income of his archbishopric (three hundred thousand ducats), the richest in Europe, in this expedition. In the dress of an archbishop, over which he wore a suit of armor, and surrounded by priests and monks, as if in a religious procession, he led the land forces. A battle ensued, Oran was captured and fortified anew, the mosques were changed into churches, and then he returned as a conqueror to Spain, where Ferdinand received him with much pomp. When the latter died, in 1516, his grandson Charles being still a minor, Ximenes became Regent of Spain. He brought the finances into order, paid the crown debts, and restored the royal domains which had been alienated. He humbled the Spanish nobility, caused the laws to be observed, and placed the military force upon a respectable footing. All his plans and conceptions were great. He possessed great sagacity and firmness, was slow in decision, but quick in execution. The Spanish cabinet was much indebted to him for the consideration in which it was held in Europe for a long time after his death, which took place in 1517.

ARTISTS.

Giovanni Bellini belonged to a Venetian family which produced several remarkable painters. He was born in 1422, died in 1512, and was the founder of the older Venetian school of painting. The most distinguished among his numerous pupils were Giorgione and Titian.

Giorgione was one of the most poetical and fascinating of Italian painters, and quickly surpassed his master. Unfortunately for art, he died in 1511, at the early age of thirty-three.

Leonardo da Vinci, the head of the Florentine school of painting, was born in the village of Vinci, near Florence, between 1444 and 1452. In 1482 Ludovico Sforza, Duke of Milan, took him into his service. Among the paintings which he executed by order of the duke, was the head of Medusa; and the most famous was the Lord's Supper, in the refectory of the Dominicans of Santa Maria delle Grazie. In 1499 he returned to Florence, where he was employed to paint one of the walls of the great council-room. On this occasion, having Michael Angelo for a competitor, he made a cartoon, which is one of his most celebrated works, commemorating a victory of the Florentines, under their chief, Niccolo Piccinio. When Leo X. ascended the papal throne, Leonardo went, in the suite of Julian, Duke of Medici, to Rome, but left that city in 1515, and went to France, at the invitation of Francis I. His reason for leaving Rome probably was that the rivalry of Michael Angelo followed him even there, or that Raphael was already intrusted with the execution of the great works in the Vatican. On account of his advanced age, he did little or nothing in France, and in 1519 he died in the arms of the king, when attempting to rise from his bed on the occasion of a visit from him.

Fra Bartolommeo di San Marco, one of the most distinguished masters of the Florentine school of painting, was born at Savignano, in Tuscany, in 1469. He owed his higher cultivation to the study of the works of Leonardo da Vinci. He was a warm adherent of that bold reformer of church and state, Savonarola, after whose tragical end he took the habit of the cloister, and for a considerable time renounced art. The visit of the young Raphael to Florence in 1504 seems to have been instrumental in stimulating him to return to it. He imparted to Raphael his knowledge of coloring, and acquired from him a more perfect knowledge of perspective. The two remained constant friends, Bartolommeo on one occasion finishing certain of Raphael's unfinished works, and Raphael performing a like kindness for him another

time.' Bartolommeo died at Florence in 1517. The greater number of his works are to be seen at Florence, in the gallery of the Pitti Palace.

Andrea Mantegna, one of the most celebrated of the early painters, was born in Padua, in 1431. Mantegna entered the service of Ludovico Gonzaga, at Mantua, and painted his great picture, the Triumph of Julius Cæsar, consisting of several pictures, which have been since transferred to Hampton Court. His Madonna della Vittoria, one of his best works, is now in the Louvre at Paris. Gonzaga conferred on him the order of knighthood in reward for his merit. Pope Innocent VIII. invited him to Rome to paint in the Belvedere. Mantegna excelled in perspective, which was then a rare merit. He died at Mantua in 1506.

Raphael Sanzio, the greatest painter of the modern, or, as he is considered by many, the last of the ancient school of art, was born at Urbino, on Good Friday, 1483, and died at Rome, Good Friday, 1520. A Madonna and child, painted by him on the wall of the yard of his father's house, without his having received any instruction, induced his father, an indifferent painter, to place him in the school of an abler master. At his request, Perugino received him among his pupils, where he soon surpassed his numerous compeers, and so completely acquired his teacher's manner that it is difficult to distinguish the works of the two belonging to this period. Raphael, on learning that the cartoons of Michael Angelo and Leonardo da Vinci, which had been prepared by these two great artists in consequence of the prize offered by the city of Florence, were publicly exhibited in that city, went to Florence to see them. These cartoons, and Florence itself, then the seat of all that was beautiful, made a deep impression on his youthful sensibilities; and he derived great advantage from the acquaintance of many young artists of distinction. The death of his parents obliged him to hurry home, and, after settling the affairs of his father, his love for Perugia induced him to return thither. After a time, his desire for improvement led him a second time to Florence, where Fra Bartolommeo gave him a more correct knowledge of coloring. At Bramante's suggestion, Pope Julius II. invited Raphael to Rome, in 1508, and received him with distinguished favor. Here he executed the Dispute of the Fathers of the Church, in the *Camera della Segnatura*. This picture so completely gained him the favor of the Pope that he caused almost all the frescoes of other artists in the Vatican to be effaced, that the rooms might be adorned by him. In 1511, all the pieces of the first *stanza* or hall were finished. Leo X. employed him, and was so charmed with the excellence of his works

that he appointed him superintendent of all the embellishments of the Vatican, and loaded him with marks of honor. During this time Raphael produced many other excellent pieces, and finished the Madonna for the church of St. Sixtus in Piacenza. This Madonna (now in Dresden) is unquestionably one of the master-works of his pencil. He also painted Saint Cecilia and the Madonna della Seggiola (now in Paris), and completed the *loggias* of the Vatican. Raphael's unfinished painting, the Transfiguration of Christ, is said to have been his last labor. Attacked by a violent fever, which was increased by improper treatment, this great artist died at the age of thirty-seven. His body was laid out in state in his study, before his painting of the Transfiguration, and consigned with great pomp to the church of Santa Maria Rotonda (formerly the Pantheon). His tomb is indicated by his bust, executed by Naldini, and placed there by Carlo Maratta, and by the epitaph of Cardinal Bembo. All contemporary writers describe Raphael as kind, obliging, modest, and amiable, equally respected and beloved by high and low. The beauty of his figure, and his noble countenance, which inspired confidence, prepossessed the beholder in his favor at first sight. He died unmarried, though by no means averse to women. In accordance with his last will, his property went to his favorite scholars, Giulio Romano and Francesco Penni.

Michael Angelo Buonarotti was born in 1474, at the castle of Caprese, in Tuscany, and died in Rome, in 1563. He was descended from the noble family of the counts of Canossa. His father was, at the time of his birth, governor of Caprese or Chiusi, an important fortress in the commonwealth of Florence. Michael Angelo was eminent alike in painting, sculpture, and architecture, and, withal, no mean poet. Domenico Ghirlandaio was his first master in drawing, and Bartololo his first in sculpture. When Lorenzo the Magnificent opened a garden in Florence for the use of artists, filled with antique statues and busts, Michael instantly resorted thither, and Lorenzo was so much struck with his first attempt at sculpture—a copy in marble of a laughing faun—that he took him under his own patronage, gave him rooms in his palace, and treated him like a son. After the death of his patron, he went to Bologna, visited Rome, and again returned to Florence, where, in the space of eighteen months, he produced from an unshapely block of marble, which another sculptor is supposed to have spoiled, the colossal statue of David which stands in the Piazza del Gran Duca. Pope Julius II. now invited him to Rome, and gave him unlimited commission to build a mausoleum. A misunderstanding with the Pope suspended this great work, which was never finished;

and the colossal statue of Moses, which was designed as a part of it, was placed in the church of San Pietro in Vincoli. A reconciliation took place at Bologna in 1506, and in 1508 the artist, after devoting sixteen months to a colossal bronze statue of Julius, which the Bolognese afterwards converted into cannon, returned to Rome, expecting to resume his work on the mausoleum. His holiness, however, had changed his mind, and was now bent upon decorating with frescoes the walls and ceilings of the Sistine Chapel, in honor of his uncle Sixtus IV., its builder. With extreme reluctance Michael Angelo consented to execute this work,—Raphael could do it better; but the Pope's request was a command; so he set himself to work, made the scaffolding, sent away the fresco-painters who had come from Florence, shut himself up alone, and finished the first picture on the ceiling,—the "Deluge." Before the ceiling was half finished, the impatient Pope had the scaffolding removed, that he might see the effect. Notwithstanding this interruption, the whole ceiling was actually painted in twenty months. He was making studies for other paintings when Julius died. Leo X. occupied him nearly all of his reign in the quarries of Pietra Santa, getting out marble for the façade of the church of San Lorenzo, in Florence. Pope Adrian VI. succeeded Leo; but he lived only one year, and was succeeded by Giulio de Medici, nephew of Lorenzo, as Clement VII., who employed Michael Angelo upon the "Medici Chapel" in the same church. In 1527-30, Michael Angelo displayed genius of another kind, being engaged in fortifying Florence against the assaults of the imperial troops. The city fell, and he restored himself to the Pope's favor by promising to complete the two figures "Day" and "Night," for the Medici Chapel, after which the Pope required him to paint the walls of the Sistine Chapel; and he painted the "Last Judgment" when he was sixty years old. This chapel was opened to the public on Christmas, 1541, Paul III. then occupying the papal chair. San Gallo died in 1546, and Paul III. commissioned Michael Angelo, then seventy years old, to continue the work on St. Peter's as the architect. This office he held under five pontificates, accepting no emolument, and nearly all the time crossed and perplexed by the invidious plots of his enemies. With this stupendous work on his hands, he must also carry forward the Palazzo Farnese; construct a palace on the Capitoline Hill, the Campidoglio; adorn the hill with antique statues; make a flight of steps to the church of the convent of Ara Cœli; rebuild an old bridge across the Tiber; and, last and greatest, convert the baths of Diocletian into the magnificent church of Santa Maria degli Angeli. Under Pope Pius IV. St. Peter's was carried

up as far as the dome, which was modeled in clay, and carefully executed on a scale in wood. But the architect had no time to direct it. A slow fever attacked him in February, 1563, and in a few days put an end to his life. He was eighty-eight years old. His funeral solemnities were honorable and imposing. His remains, after lying in state for a short time in the church of Santi Apostoli, were conveyed to Florence, and deposited in a vault in the church of Santa Croce.

Mention may be made here of three famous contemporaries of Maximilian. *Goetz von Berlichingen*, a German knight, and Lord of Suabia, whose residence was Jaxthausen, on the river Jaxt, gave the Emperor Maximilian some trouble. Goetz had a steel hand, and was therefore called the *Iron-hand*; he took part with the peasants against the nobles, and in 1513 made war on Nuremberg, and with one hundred and seventy men waylaid and plundered merchants from Leipsic. The Emperor put him under the ban of the empire, and sentenced him to pay fourteen thousand florins, which he found much difficulty in doing. Offending again, the Emperor besieged him in his castle of Jaxthausen, where he defended himself desperately, but was wounded, and died shortly after.

John Reuchlin, an eminent scholar, born at Pforzheim in 1455, so distinguished himself at school by his studies and good conduct, and by the excellence of his singing in the chapel of his prince, Charles, Margrave of Baden, that he appointed him companion on his travels to his son Frederic, afterwards Bishop of Utrecht. In 1473 Reuchlin accompanied that prince to Paris to study there in the most celebrated schools. In 1475 they went to Basle, where Reuchlin published his Latin dictionary and his Greek grammar, first published in Germany. In 1478 he went to Orleans, and studied law while he taught the ancient languages. In 1481 he returned to Germany, and taught law and belles-lettres at Tübingen. Eberhard, Count of Würtemberg, soon after took him, as the best Latinist in Germany, in his train, on an embassy to Rome. The treasures of science which Lorenzo de Medici had accumulated in Florence, and those of Rome, were thus opened to the curiosity of Reuchlin. The Emperor Frederic III. created him a noble of the empire in 1492. After Eberhard's death, Reuchlin lived several years at the court of Philip, Elector of the Palatinate. Here he enriched the Heidelberg library with manuscripts and productions of the new art of printing. The elector having been basely calumniated at the Roman court, and even excommunicated, Reuchlin repaired again to Rome, and defended the rights of his prince with equal prudence and eloquence. He was subsequently

appointed president of the Court of the Confederacy which had been established by the Suabian princes against the encroachments of the House of Bavaria. He was also engaged in translating the penitential psalms, preparing a Hebrew grammar and dictionary, and correcting the translation of the Bible. His agency in introducing his relative Melanchthon into the field where he eventually exerted himself so beneficially in conjunction with Luther, places Reuchlin among the contributors to the Reformation. But in an age in which ignorance and priesthood prevailed, he could not fail of having enemies. A converted Jew, John Pfeffercorn, and one Hoogstraten, were the instigators of these blind zealots in their attacks upon Hebrew literature. They persuaded the Emperor Maximilian that all Hebrew works, the Old Testament only excepted, were of bad tendency. In 1509 the Emperor issued a decree ordering all such works in his dominions to be burned; but he added that the opinion of a secular scholar might in all cases be consulted, and this saved Oriental literature. Reuchlin assured the Emperor that these works, instead of injuring Christianity, contributed, on the contrary, to its honor and glory, since the study of them produced learned and bold champions to fight for the honor of the Christian religion, and that to destroy these books would be to put arms into the hands of its enemies. A war of pens raged for ten years, in regard to this declaration of Reuchlin. On one side were Hoogstraten and the universities of Paris, Louvain, Erfurt, and Mayence; on the other, Reuchlin and the most learned and enlightened men of all countries. Unmoved amid the revilings and threats of his opponents, Reuchlin finally brought this dispute before the Pope, when Maximilian, regretting that he had given rise to so unhappy a controversy, declared himself in favor of Reuchlin. Francis von Sickingen and Ulrich of Suabia avowed themselves ready to use the sword in this contest, in case it should be necessary. About the same time the *Epistola Obscurorum Virorum* appeared, in which Reuchlin's enemies were rendered ridiculous. At length the Pope appointed the Archbishop of Speyer as umpire, and he decided for Reuchlin. William of Bavaria afterwards appointed him professor in the University of Ingolstadt. The plague having broken out in that place in 1522, he removed to Tübingen, where, retired from state affairs, he again devoted himself to study. He died at Stuttgart in 1532.

It was under Albert the Wise, Duke of Bavaria, that the law of primogeniture in Bavaria was established, with the consent of Maximilian, A.D. 1506.

Alexander VI., Borgia, was the most celebrated of the eight Popes

of this name, but at the same time the most infamous one that ever lived, as well as the most vicious prince of his age. Alexander was made cardinal by his uncle Calixtus III., and on the death of Innocent VIII. was elevated to the papal chair, which he had previously secured by flagrant bribery. The long absence of the Popes from Italy had weakened their authority and curtailed their revenues. To compensate for this loss, Alexander endeavored to break the power of the Italian princes, and to appropriate their possessions for the benefit of his own children. To gain this end, he employed the most execrable means. He died in 1503, from having partaken, by accident, as is commonly believed, of poisoned wine intended for his guests. Under his pontificate the censorship of books was introduced, and Jerome Savonarola, the earnest and eloquent Florentine priest, who had advocated his deposition, was condemned to be burned as a heretic.

CHARLES V., KARL DER FUNFTE. A.D. 1519-1566.

"Plus ultra." (More beyond.)

CHARLES V., Maximilian's grandson, was born at Ghent, in the Netherlands, in 1500. He inherited from his father Austria and Burgundy, and from his mother, Spain, all the countries his grandfather Ferdinand had acquired in Italy, and the newly-discovered America. He was educated in the Netherlands, under the care of William of Croy, Lord of Chievres. His tutor was Adrian Floorissoon, afterwards Pope Adrian VI. After the death of his grandfather Ferdinand, in 1516, he assumed the title of Charles I. of Spain.

The Emperor Maximilian, before his death, had secured a few votes for Charles as Emperor; but when the electors were assembled, Pope Leo X.* opposed the election of Charles, because there would no longer be a sea between them; and he was also opposed to Francis I. of France, because there would be no more barriers between France and Italy. The princes of Germany were afraid Charles would be too powerful, and gave their vote for Frederic the Wise, of Saxony. But Frederic declined the honor, and proposed Charles, who was then elected. Charles sent him, in token of his gratitude for this favor, one

* Leo X. was the originator of the idea known as "the balance of power." He put it into practical utility, checking both the French king and the Emperor. The preservation of this balance has since been the aim of the peace-loving monarchs; its overthrow, that of the ambitious.

hundred thousand ducats; but Frederic returned the present, nor would he allow his servants to receive anything for this service. Charles

always retained great respect for him, and in matters of importance used frequently to say, "First let us hear what our father, Frederic of Saxony, will say to it."

Charles was crowned at Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1520, with extraordinary splendor. In his early years he had been frivolous and dissolute, and had always preferred military exercises to study; but his directors, without diverting him from his favorite occupations, taught him history, formed him for affairs of state, and implanted in him that gravity which he retained through life, and which made him ever mindful of the duties and dignity of his high station.

Francis I. of France was a candidate for the empire,

and said to Charles, on that occasion, "We are two suitors to the same mistress; the more fortunate will gain her, and the other must rest contented." But Francis was far from satisfied when Charles was elected. Both were anxious to gain the friendship of Henry VIII. of England. For this purpose, Francis proposed a meeting with Henry. Charles, finding it impossible to prevent it, determined to defeat its purpose, and to secure the favor of the English monarch, by an act as flattering as it was uncommon.

Relying wholly on Henry's generosity, Charles landed at Dover, and the King of England, who was already on his way to France, charmed with such an instance of confidence, hastened to receive his royal guest. Charles, during his short stay, not only gained Henry's good will, but



CHARLES-V.

also secured the favor and influence of Henry's powerful minister and favorite, Cardinal Wolsey. Charles then took leave, and Henry continued his journey. The meeting at "*The Field of the Cloth of Gold*" between Francis and Henry was very cordial, and they parted, pledging their friendship to each other. Charles, however, following up his acquaintance with Wolsey, and giving him some bishoprics in Spain, succeeded in obtaining what he wished; which was that Henry should remain neutral in whatever contests might take place between himself and Francis.

But affairs in Germany now demanded all his attention. The means of information had been vastly increased by the art of printing; materials for thinking had been laid before the people; the Popes, caring only for themselves, and pursuing their inclinations for wealth, power, and extravagance of living, had for years been called upon for a "*reformation in the Church in its head and its members.*" Charles VIII. of France caused the Sorbonne, in 1497, to declare it expedient that a council should be held every ten years for effecting reforms in the Church, and that otherwise the bishops should assemble for that purpose. The Emperor Maximilian laid before the Roman court the strong remonstrances of the German princes passed in the diets of 1500 and 1510. The writings of Reuchlin and Erasmus diffused liberal views on the subject of religion; and of still greater power over the mass of the people was the host of satires, epigrams, caustic allegories, and coarse jokes, at the expense of the Church and monks, from Renard the Fox to the more delicate raillery of these two scholars, who were not ardent or bold enough to take a decisive step. The centre of Europe, together with the north, which had long submitted with reluctance to Rome, was ready to countenance the boldest measures for shaking off the priestly yoke, of which the best and most reflecting men had become impatient. But no one anticipated the quarter where the first blow would be struck.

Frederic the Wise, Elector of Saxony, a zealous Catholic, and a great collector of relics, had invited Martin Luther to be professor of theology in his university at Wittenberg. Luther had a powerful mind, but was more distinguished for his deep piety and strong love of truth than for his erudition. He was well acquainted with the Holy Scriptures, and by a visit to Rome in 1510, on some business of his order, the Augustines, had also become acquainted with the corruptions of the papal court.

Leo X. was created Pope in 1513. He wanted money to finish St. Peter's at Rome, to beautify the Vatican, to embellish Florence, and

hundred thousand ducats; but Frederic returned the present, nor would he allow his servants to receive anything for this service. Charles

always retained great respect for him, and in matters of importance used frequently to say, "First let us hear what our father, Frederic of Saxony, will say to it."

Charles was crowned at Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1520, with extraordinary splendor. In his early years he had been frivolous and dissolute, and had always preferred military exercises to study; but his directors, without diverting him from his favorite occupations, taught him history, formed him for affairs of state, and implanted in him that gravity which he retained through life, and which made him ever mindful of the duties and dignity of his high station.

Francis I. of France was a candidate for the empire,

and said to Charles, on that occasion, "We are two suitors to the same mistress; the more fortunate will gain her, and the other must rest contented." But Francis was far from satisfied when Charles was elected. Both were anxious to gain the friendship of Henry VIII. of England. For this purpose, Francis proposed a meeting with Henry. Charles, finding it impossible to prevent it, determined to defeat its purpose, and to secure the favor of the English monarch, by an act as flattering as it was uncommon.

Relying wholly on Henry's generosity, Charles landed at Dover, and the King of England, who was already on his way to France, charmed with such an instance of confidence, hastened to receive his royal guest. Charles, during his short stay, not only gained Henry's good will, but



CHARLES-V.

also secured the favor and influence of Henry's powerful minister and favorite, Cardinal Wolsey. Charles then took leave, and Henry continued his journey. The meeting at "*The Field of the Cloth of Gold*" between Francis and Henry was very cordial, and they parted, pledging their friendship to each other. Charles, however, following up his acquaintance with Wolsey, and giving him some bishoprics in Spain, succeeded in obtaining what he wished; which was that Henry should remain neutral in whatever contests might take place between himself and Francis.

But affairs in Germany now demanded all his attention. The means of information had been vastly increased by the art of printing; materials for thinking had been laid before the people; the Popes, caring only for themselves, and pursuing their inclinations for wealth, power, and extravagance of living, had for years been called upon for a "*reformation in the Church in its head and its members.*" Charles VIII. of France caused the Sorbonne, in 1497, to declare it expedient that a council should be held every ten years for effecting reforms in the Church, and that otherwise the bishops should assemble for that purpose. The Emperor Maximilian laid before the Roman court the strong remonstrances of the German princes passed in the diets of 1500 and 1510. The writings of Reuchlin and Erasmus diffused liberal views on the subject of religion; and of still greater power over the mass of the people was the host of satires, epigrams, caustic allegories, and coarse jokes, at the expense of the Church and monks, from Renard the Fox to the more delicate raillery of these two scholars, who were not ardent or bold enough to take a decisive step. The centre of Europe, together with the north, which had long submitted with reluctance to Rome, was ready to countenance the boldest measures for shaking off the priestly yoke, of which the best and most reflecting men had become impatient. But no one anticipated the quarter where the first blow would be struck.

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to finish the Medici chapel at San Lorenzo, in that city. Little concerned by the universal desire for reformation in the Church, he seemed placed at its head merely to employ its revenues in the gratification of his princely tastes.

Albert, Elector of Mayence and Archbishop of Magdeburg, generally called Albert of Brandenburg, younger son of John Cicero, Elector of Brandenburg, a prince of similar character, received from Leo, in 1516, permission to sell indulgences within his own jurisdiction, on condition that he should share the profits with the Pope. In this traffic, among others, Albert employed John Tetzel, a Dominican monk, experienced in the business. When Tetzel arrived at Jüterbok, purchasers flocked to him from Wittenberg, which was in the neighborhood, and there, showing the certificates to their confessors, denied all necessity for new penances.

The form of the absolution issued by Arcemboldus, a seller of indulgences in Denmark and Sweden, was as follows : "I absolve thee from all thy sins, how enormous soever, and remit thee all manner of punishment which thou oughtest to suffer in purgatory, and at death the gates of Paradise shall be opened to receive thee. In the name of the Father, of the Son, and of the Holy Ghost." And Tetzel added, "As soon as the money chinks in the coffer the soul springs out of purgatory." These certificates, shown by those who had purchased them to their confessors, aroused Luther, and he not only preached against this abuse, but nailed his ninety-five theses, or questions, on the door of the great church at Wittenberg, in 1517. His sermons on indulgences were published in German, and in a few weeks were spread over all Germany. His theses were in Latin, and were soon spread throughout Europe. A war of words succeeded, and in 1520 Pope Leo X. excommunicated Luther because he would not admit that the Pope had power to remit *divine* punishment, and his writings were burned at Rome, Cologne, and Louvain. Luther, in turn, burned the bull of excommunication and the decretals of the papal canon, at Wittenberg, December 10, 1520, and appealed to a general council of the Church. Leo summoned Luther to Rome; Frederic the Wise opposed his going, and the Emperor Charles, in consequence, convoked the diet at Worms, where Luther was to appear before the Pope's legate, Cardinal Cajetan.

However, we must not overlook the circumstances which favored the progress of reformation. The Pope had risen chiefly by the support of Germany; in his transactions with the Emperor he had generally been supported by the German princes, who thus maintained their own independence. Rome had, therefore, been obliged to court them in turn,

and the Emperor congratulated himself in silence if disputes ensued between them. On the death of Maximilian, the elector Frederic the Wise of Saxony was the most powerful prince in Germany, held the dignity of a vicar of the empire in all the Saxon territories, and his personal influence gave him the most decisive voice in the election of the new Emperor. The Pope, as well as Charles, was therefore more or less obliged to consult his wishes. Frederic procured from Charles a safe-conduct for Luther to attend the diet of Worms, and the worthiest of the German nobles, Hutten, Sickingen, and Schaumburg, offered him their fortresses and their arms.

Luther was so convinced of the justice of his cause that he heeded no dangers, and defended himself boldly before the diet, concluding his speech of two hours in length with these words, "Let me, then, be refuted and convinced by the testimony of the Scriptures, or by the clearest arguments; otherwise I cannot and will not recant; for it is neither safe nor expedient to act against conscience. Here I take my stand; I can do no otherwise, so help me God! Amen."

Luther left Worms in fact a conqueror; but it was so manifest that his enemies were determined upon his destruction, that Frederic the Wise had him conveyed privately to the castle of Wartburg, to save his life; but Charles, who thought it for his advantage, issued a severe edict against him.

The claims which Francis I. had advanced to the empire, and those which he still insisted on maintaining to Italy, the Netherlands, and Navarre, made war appear inevitable. Charles prepared for it by an alliance with the Pope. Hostilities broke out in 1521. The French, victorious in the Pyrenees, were unsuccessful in the Netherlands. Meantime the Constable of Bourbon, who had married the daughter of the regent, Anne de Beaujeu, the richest heiress in France, lost his wife in 1522, and succeeded to all her possessions. Louisa of Savoy, mother of Francis I., desired her son to propose a match between herself and the constable. He did so; but the constable, who was a man of strict and regular conduct, declined the proposal. From that moment Louisa's love turned to deadly hate, and she put in a claim to all the Bourbon possessions in right of her mother, and, contrary to all law and equity, obtained a decision in her favor. The constable, thus stripped of everything, in a moment of desperation, abandoned the service of his country and entered that of the Emperor, who received him with open arms. Bourbon was appointed to make an invasion in France, but, being unsuccessful, made a hasty retreat into Italy. Francis, elated with the discomfiture of Bourbon, followed him into

Italy, and laid siege to Pavia. Charles sent a numerous army under Bourbon to the relief of the city. A battle took place on the 23d of February, 1525, in which Francis was defeated, taken prisoner, and carried to the imperial camp, whence he dispatched this laconic note to his mother, "Madame, all is lost except honor."

When the French crossed the Alps, the Chevalier Bayard, of Dauphiné, the knight "without fear and without reproach," was mortally wounded on the banks of the Sesia, in a battle with Bourbon. The duke found him leaning against a tree; and upon his expressing sorrow for his fate, the chevalier replied, "Pity not me; I die in the discharge of my duty; but pity those who fight against their country and their oath."

Charles imposed such hard conditions upon Francis, that he swore he would rather die in captivity than accede to them. Francis was therefore sent to Spain, where he remained one year in prison, and, falling ill, the Emperor went to see him. Charles offered him his liberty on nearly the same terms as before, and Francis, weary of confinement, accepted them, and agreed to give his two eldest sons as hostages for their performance.

In 1529 a treaty was made between Francis and Charles, called the "*Treaty of Cambray*." It was also called "*The Ladies' Peace*," because it was negotiated by Louisa of Savoy and Margaret, aunt of Charles. By this treaty Francis agreed to marry Eleanor, widow of Emanuel the Great of Portugal, sister of Charles, and to pay a large ransom for his sons, both of which agreements he performed.

The famous War of the Peasants broke out in 1522. The Reformation, by the mental awakening which it produced, and the diffusion of sentiments favorable to freedom, must be reckoned among the causes of the great insurrection itself, although Luther, Melanchthon, and the other leading Reformers, while urging the nobles to justice and humanity, strongly reprobated the violent proceedings of the peasants. The Anabaptists, and Münzer in particular, were the first to encourage and excite them. This insurrection, and the one called the Latin War, in 1523, which arose against an unpopular archbishop in Salzburg, were quickly suppressed. On January 1, 1525, the peasantry of the abbacy of Kempten, along with the townspeople, suddenly assailed and plundered the convent, compelling the abbot to sign a renunciation of his rights. This proved the signal for a rising of the peasants on all sides throughout the south of Germany. Many of the princes and nobles at first regarded the insurrection with some degree of complacency, because it was directed in the first instance chiefly against the ecclesi-

astical lords; some, too, because it seemed likely to promote the interests of Ulric, the exiled Duke of Würtemberg, who was then upon the point of reconquering his dominions by the help of the Swiss; others, because it seemed likely to set bounds to the increase of Austrian power. But Charles's brother, the Archduke Ferdinand, hastened to raise an army, the troops of the empire being for the most part engaged in the Emperor's wars in Italy, and intrusted the command of it to the Truchsess von Waldburg, a man of stern and unscrupulous character, but of ability and energy. Von Waldburg negotiated with the peasants in order to gain time, and defeated and destroyed large bodies of them, but was himself defeated by them on the 22d of April, when he made a treaty, not having, however, the least intention of keeping it. Meanwhile, the insurrection extended, and became general throughout Germany, and a number of towns took part in it, as Heilbronn, Mühlhausen, Fulda, Frankfort, etc.; but there was a total want of co-operation and organization. Towards Easter, 1525, there appeared in Upper Suabia a manifesto, which set forth the grievances and demands of the insurgents. The conduct of the insurgents was not, however, in accordance with the moderation of their demands. Their many separate bands destroyed towns and castles, murdered, pillaged, and were guilty of the greatest excesses, which must, indeed, be regarded as partly in revenge for the cruelty practiced against them by Von Waldburg. A number of princes and knights concluded treaties with the peasants, conceding their principal demands. In May and June of 1525 the peasants experienced a number of severe defeats. The landgrave Philip of Hesse was also successful against them in the north of Germany. The peasants, after they had been subjugated, were everywhere treated with terrible cruelty. In one instance, a great body of them were perfidiously massacred after they had laid down their arms. It is supposed that more than one hundred and fifty thousand persons lost their lives in the Peasants' War. The lot of the defeated insurgents became harder than ever, and many of the burdens of the peasants originated at this period, and the cause of the Reformation also was very injuriously affected.

In 1525, the territories of Prussia, which had belonged to the Teutonic order, were transformed into a *hereditary duchy*.

Pope Clement VII., becoming alarmed at the increase of the power of the Emperor, released Francis from some of his obligations, and then tried to exclude Charles from Italy. Charles sent an army against him, commanded by Charles de Bourbon, formerly Constable of France, who captured Rome, and took the Pope prisoner. Charles

expressed great regret, went into mourning with all his court, and caused prayers to be said for the Pope's liberty, while by his own directions De Bourbon kept the Pope a prisoner seven months. At length peace was restored, and Clement VII. crowned Charles in Bologna. He was the last Emperor crowned in Italy as King of Lombardy and Roman Emperor.

In 1529, Sultan Solyman II. the Magnificent, considered as the most illustrious of the Turkish Emperors, a powerful adversary of Charles V., attempted to conquer Vienna, but was unsuccessful. Solyman obtained possession of the island of Rhodes, and drove from it the Knights of St. John, who retired to Malta, which was given them by Charles.

In this same year, Charles held a diet at Speyer, where was passed the following resolution: "That, until a general council should be held, further innovations in ecclesiastical affairs should be avoided; the mass should not be any further abolished, nor its celebration be prevented in those places whither the new doctrine had already spread; no inflammatory sermons should be preached, and no vituperative writings be printed." The princes of the empire, who were in favor of the Reformation, *protested* against this resolution, and hence were called *Protestants*. This word *Protestant* was also adopted in foreign countries; but in 1517, when the centennial celebration of the beginning of the German Reformation caused several controversies in Prussia, the government prohibited the further use of the term Protestant in the country, since the Protestants did not any longer *protest*, and ordered the word *Evangelical* to be substituted in its place.

In 1530, the Emperor, with a view to an amicable arrangement of the religious split that had existed in Germany since 1517, and as protector of the Church, convoked a diet at Augsburg, and required from the Protestants a short statement of the doctrines in which they departed from the Catholic Church. Frederic the Wise of Saxony died in 1525, and was succeeded by his brother, John the Steadfast, who now directed Luther and some other of the eminent doctors to draw up a brief summary of the doctrines of the reformed religion. Luther thought that the seventeen articles agreed to in the convention at Swabach, in the year 1529, were sufficient. From these articles as the basis, Philip Melanchthon, by order and authority of the princes, drew up and put into more free and agreeable language, holding consultation all the while with Luther, that confession of faith which is called the *Augsburg Confession*.

In March, 1531, nine Protestant princes and counts, and eleven free

cities, formed a union at Smalkalden, called the *Smalkaldic League*, for the mutual defense of their faith and political independence against Charles V. and the Catholic states. The union was formed for six years. But in 1535 it was made for ten years, and being greatly strengthened by new members, the princes formed a resolution to keep on foot an army of twelve thousand men.

When things began to wear this warlike aspect, the Electors of Mayence and the Palatinate interposed as mediators between the parties. Charles, for various reasons, was anxious for peace. He had had his brother Ferdinand created King of the Romans, in the diet of Cologne, in 1531; and Solyman the Magnificent was again on the move in Hungary. After various consultations, a peace was concluded at Nuremberg between the Emperor and the Protestants, on the following terms: that the latter should contribute money for the Turkish war, and should acknowledge Ferdinand as King of the Romans; and that Charles should annul the edicts of Worms and Augsburg, and should allow the followers of Luther full liberty to regulate their religious matters as they pleased, until either a council or a diet of the empire should determine what religious principles were to be adopted and obeyed. Scarcely was this convention closed when John the Steadfast of Saxony died, and was succeeded by his son, John Frederic.

Charles was soon at the head of an army of one hundred thousand men to defend Vienna. Solyman was defeated, with a loss of eighty thousand men, and returned to Constantinople. In 1535, Charles set out on an expedition against Tunis, where the pirate Barbarossa had established himself, reinstated the Dey, secured the protection of the commerce of Spain and Italy, and released twenty thousand Christians. This success added to his character somewhat of the chivalric, and gave him still more interest in Christendom, and promoted his political projects.

On his return to Germany, the Emperor reformed some of the laws and established his criminal code. In 1536, war broke out with France; but his invasions of Provence and Picardy met with small success. The two monarchs had an interview, and made a truce for ten years. Charles afterwards, wishing to pass through France, on his way from Spain to the Netherlands, spent six days in Paris with Francis, where they appeared together in public like brothers.

In 1541, Charles resolved to crown his reputation by the conquest of Algiers. Against Doria's advice, he embarked in the stormy season, and lost a part of his fleet and army, without gaining any advantage.

Troubles in Germany soon broke out in consequence of the Smalkal-dic League, and Charles was determined to break it up. In 1546 he declared the heads of the league under the ban of the empire, excited division among the confederates, collected an army in haste, and obtained several advantages over his enemies. John Frederic, the Elector of Saxony, was taken prisoner in the battle of Mühlberg, in 1547. Charles received him sternly, and gave him over to a court-martial, consisting of Italians and Spaniards, under the presidency of Alva, which condemned him to death. The elector saved his life only by renouncing his electorate and his hereditary estates; but he remained a prisoner. Meanwhile, the Emperor appeared somewhat more moderately inclined towards the vanquished party. On coming to Wittenberg, he expressed surprise that the exercise of the Lutheran worship had been discontinued. He visited the grave of Luther; and when it was proposed to him to take up his bones and burn them, he replied, "I do not war with the dead; let him rest in peace; he is already before his Judge." The Landgrave of Hesse-Cassel, one of the heads of the Protestants, was compelled to sue for peace; and, notwithstanding his promise, Charles deprived him of his freedom.

After having broken up this league, and vainly attempted to have a general council of the Church convoked by the Pope,—though one was called at Trent, and then dismissed on account of a report of the plague having appeared near there,—Charles again occupied himself with the plan of uniting all religious parties, and issued the *Interim*, which, though very favorable to the papal cause, was equally displeasing to the pontiff and to the Lutherans.

The *Interim* settled *pro tempore* the constitution, the doctrines, and the discipline of the Church in Germany. At the diet of Augsburg, in 1548, it received the force of a law of the empire. Nothing was conceded to the Protestants but the cup in the Lord's Supper, and the marriage of priests; in every other respect the doctrines and ceremonies of Catholicism, from which they had been free for more than twenty years, were to be restored. The Protestants, however, contrived to gain time by negotiations and compliances until the treaty of Passau, in 1552; and the peace of Augsburg, in 1555, secured to them complete religious freedom.

Maurice of Saxony, cousin of John Frederic, whom the Emperor had invested with the electoral dignity, seeing plainly that Charles intended to convert the German Empire into a hereditary possession for his own family, and also holding his father-in-law, Philip of Hesse, prisoner, turned against the Emperor, came near capturing him at

Innspruck,* and, being joined by the other Protestant princes, so terrified Charles that he appeared quite ready to agree to any terms of peace. The *pacification* at Passau established the *religious peace* in 1542; and it was afterwards confirmed at the diet of Augsburg in presence of Ferdinand, the Emperor's brother. In 1545, Pope Paul III., in accordance with his promise, convoked the Council of Trent.

Francis I. of France died the same day that the Emperor won the battle of Mühlberg; and his son, Henry II., taking advantage of the troubles in Germany, seized upon the cities of Metz, Toul, and Verdun.

Charles, furious at the loss of so strong a fortress and so important a city as Metz, containing at that time sixty thousand inhabitants, assembled an army of one hundred thousand men, determined at all risks to regain it. The defense, however, had been undertaken by the youthful and chivalrous Francois, Duke of Guise, the same who afterwards wrested Calais from the English, who threw himself into the place with the *élite* of the French nobility, among whom was the Prince de Condé. Guise, by his address and activity, conciliated the citizens, induced them to endure patiently the horrors of a siege, and strengthened the walls by new works thrown up in an incredibly short space of time. On January 1, 1553, at the end of ten months, the Emperor, experienced though he was, was compelled to raise the siege, having lost thirty thousand men before the place. "Fortune is a woman," he exclaimed, bitterly, "and she favors only the young."

The Duke of Guise was at that time thirty years of age.

The Emperor then went to Brussels, where, hard pressed by his enemies, and suffering from the gout, he became gloomy and dejected, and for several months concealed himself from the sight of everyone, so that the report of his death was spread throughout Europe. His last exertions were directed against France, which constantly repelled his assaults. The diet of Augsburg, in 1555, confirmed the treaty of Passau, and gave the Protestants equal rights with the Catholics.

Charles, seeing all his plans frustrated, and the number of his enemies increasing, resolved to transfer his hereditary estates to his son Philip. Convening the estates of the Low Countries at Louvain, in 1555, he explained to them the reasons of his resolution, asserting that he had sacrificed himself for the interests of religion and his subjects, but that his strength was inadequate to further exertion, and that he should devote to God the remainder of his days.

* It was in the middle of a stormy night that Maurice entered Innspruck, and Charles, tormented by the gout, escaped alone, in a litter, by difficult roads.

Turning to Philip, who had thrown himself on his knees and kissed the hand of his father, he reminded him of his duties, and made him swear to labor incessantly for the good of his people. He then gave him his blessing, embraced him, and sank back exhausted on his chair. At that time Charles conferred on Philip the sovereignty of the Netherlands alone. January 15, 1556, he conferred upon him the Spanish throne, reserving for himself merely an annual pension of one hundred thousand ducats. The remaining time that he spent in the Netherlands he employed in reconciling his son with France, and effected the conclusion of a truce.

Having made an unsuccessful attempt to induce his brother Ferdinand to transfer the imperial crown to the head of his son, he sent a solemn embassy to Germany, by William the Silent, Prince of Orange, to announce to the electors his abdication; after which he embarked at Zealand, and landed on the coast of Biscay. He had selected for his residence the monastery of St. Just, near Plasencia, in Estremadura, and here he exchanged sovereignty, dominion, and pomp for the quiet and solitude of a cloister. His amusements were confined to short rides, to the cultivation of a garden, and to making clocks. He attended religious services twice a day; and just before his death, as an extraordinary act of piety, he celebrated his own obsequies. This ceremony seems to have hastened his death. He was attacked shortly after by a fever, of which he died, at the age of fifty-nine, September 21, 1558, and was buried in Granada, but afterwards his remains were transferred to the Escorial.

His wife was Eleanora of Portugal, daughter of Emanuel the Great. He had by her one son, Philip II., and two daughters,—Mary, who married her cousin, the Emperor Maximilian II.; and Joanna, who married the Infant John of Portugal, son of John II.

His natural children were Don John of Austria and Margaret of Parma.

Charles V. is one of the most remarkable characters in history. He exhibited no talents in his youth, and in after-life, when his armies in Italy were winning battle after battle, he remained quietly in Spain, apparently not much interested in these victories; but even in his early youth his motto was, "*Not yet*,"—Nondum. It was not until his thirtieth year that he showed himself active and independent; but from this time to his abdication he was throughout a monarch. No minister had a marked influence over him. Cardinal Granvelle was the only person who possessed his entire confidence. In his fortieth year he began to grow weak, and suffered extremely from the gout. After his

mother's death, he thought sometimes that he heard her voice calling him to follow her. It is said that when arming for battle he trembled, but that in the heat of the engagement he was as cool as if it were impossible for an Emperor to be killed.

CONTEMPORARIES OF CHARLES V.

ENGLAND.

Henry VIII. succeeded to a clear title and an ample treasure. He received the title of "Defender of the Faith" from the Pope, for writing a book against Luther, but quarreled with the Pope afterwards because he would not grant him a divorce from Katharine of Aragon, and this led to a separation of England from the Romish see. All the "religious houses" in England were broken up, and their revenues divided among the favorites of the king. Through the rivalries of Charles V. and Francis I. Henry was drawn into many foreign wars.

His first wife was *Katharine*, daughter of Ferdinand of Aragon and Isabella of Castile. From the moment her parents conquered the Moors, Granada was her home. The first objects that greeted her awakening intellect were the wonders of the Alhambra and the exquisite bowers of the Generalife. Her device was the pomegranate,—the armorial insignia of the conquered Moorish kings. She was first married to Arthur, Prince of Wales, when in her sixteenth year. Six months after, she was left a widow. Two years afterwards, she was married to her brother-in-law, Henry. When Henry invaded France, he intrusted his queen with higher powers than had ever yet been bestowed on a female regent in England. Henry won the "Battle of the Spurs," while Katharine repelled a Scottish invasion and gained the victory at "Flodden Field." Henry divorced her after they had been married twenty-four years. A great historian says "that Henry's repudiated wife was the only person who could defy him with impunity; she had lost his love, but had never forfeited his esteem." The grand abilities of Katharine, her unstained integrity and esteem. The grand abilities of Katharine, her unstained integrity, from her enemies that deep respect which her sweetness, benevolence, and other saintly virtues would not have obtained unsupported by these high qualities. One mighty genius, Shakspeare, has properly appreciated and vividly portrayed the great talents, as well as the moral worth, of the right royal Katharine of Aragon. She died at the age of fifty, and was buried at the beautiful abbey church of Peterborough. One only child survived her, Mary, afterwards Queen of England.

Anne Boleyn was the second wife of Henry. There is no name in the annals of female royalty over which the enchantments of poetry and romance have cast such bewildering spells as that of Anne Boleyn. Her wit, her beauty, and the striking vicissitudes of her fate have invested her with an interest not commonly excited by a woman in whom vanity and ambition were the leading traits. She was maid of honor to Mary of England, wife of Louis XII., then to the good Queen Claude, wife of Francis I.; after which she entered the more lively household of that royal *belle esprit*, Margaret, Duchess d'Alençon, afterwards Queen of Navarre, sister of Francis I. In 1522 she returned to England, and through Wolsey was recommended as maid of honor to Katharine of Aragon. She was married to Henry in 1533. It was through her that Wolsey was degraded and Sir Thomas More and Bishop Fisher were beheaded. She was unkind to her step-daughter Mary, whose forgiveness she begged before her execution. She favored the Reformation, and saved the life of Hugh Latimer, though twenty-five years afterwards he was burned at the stake. Anne was beheaded at the age of thirty-six, A.D. 1536. She left one child, Elizabeth, afterwards Queen of England.

Jane Seymour was married to Henry within twenty-four hours after Anne's execution. She is called by historians "the fairest, the discreetest, and the most meritorious of all Henry's wives." She was kind to the Princess Mary, and tried to effect a reconciliation between her and the king. Whether from instinctive prudence or natural taciturnity, she certainly exemplified the wise proverb, that "the least said is soonest mended," for she passed eighteen months of royal life without uttering a sentence significant enough to bear preservation. She died about a fortnight after the birth of her son, Edward VI., from being suffered to take cold and to eat improper food.

Anne of Cleves, daughter of John III., Duke of Cleves, was the fourth wife of Henry. Her device was two white swans, emblems of candor and innocence. Her family motto was, *Candida nostra fides*,—"Our faith is spotless." Her eldest sister, Sibylla, married John Frederic, Duke of Saxony, one of the champions of the Reformation, surnamed the Lion-hearted Elector. Sibylla was famed for her talents and virtues; Anne, for her gentleness and amiability. Cromwell recommended her to Henry, and they were married in 1540. Six months afterwards, they were divorced. Anne went then to reside at her palace at Richmond. Her good sense preserved her from involving herself in any of the political intrigues of the times. Her last public appearance was at the coronation of Queen Mary, when she rode

in the same carriage with the Princess Elizabeth, with whom she was always on the most affectionate terms. She died in 1577, aged sixty-one, and was buried near the high altar in Westminster Abbey.

Katharine Howard was a daughter of that illustrious house which has given to England during the last four hundred years so many heroes, poets, politicians, courtiers, patrons of literature, and state victims to tyranny and revenge. Her career affords a grand moral lesson,—a lesson better calculated to illustrate the vanity of female ambition, and the fatal consequences of the first unguarded steps in guilt, than all the warning essays that have ever been written on those subjects. Her mother died when Katharine was in early childhood, and her grandmother, the Duchess-dowager of Norfolk, left her to associate altogether with her waiting-women and a band of gentlemen pensioners belonging to the Duke of Norfolk. She was appointed maid of honor to Anne of Cleves. In August, 1540, Henry introduced Katharine at Hampton Court as his queen. She was a young lady of moderate beauty, but of superlative grace. Her form was small and slender. The scandals of her girlhood were told to Henry, who had her tried, condemned, and beheaded in the flower of her age, and in the eighteenth month of her marriage. It is believed that neither she nor Anne Boleyn was in any way guilty of the breach of matrimony of which they were accused. Both she and Anne were buried near each other in St. Peter's Chapel of the Tower. Henry assumed the title of King of Ireland a few days before her execution. Katharine Howard therefore died the first Queen of England and Ireland.

Katharine Parr was the first Protestant Queen of England. She was gifted by nature with fine talents, and these were improved by the advantages of careful cultivation. Her first husband was Lord Borough, a widower with grown-up children. She was probably under twenty when she married her second husband, Lord Latimer, a mature widower. Katharine's ancestors were the Marmions. She was not only pious, learned, and passing fair, but, after the death of her second husband, possessed great wealth. Sir Thomas Seymour, brother of Queen Jane, sought her hand, but withdrew his suit in fear when he found Henry was determined to get her. Henry and Katharine were married in July, 1543. The Princess Mary was her bridesmaid. How well her sound sense and endearing manners fitted her to reconcile the rival interests, and to render herself a bond of union between the disjointed links of the royal family, is proved by the affection and respect of her grateful step-children, and also by their letters after King Henry's death. One of the first fruits of Queen Katharine's virtuous influence

over the mind of the king was the restoration of his daughters, the persecuted Mary, and the young, neglected Elizabeth, to their proper rank in the court, and recognition in the order of succession to the crown. After Henry's death, she married Thomas Seymour, Lord Sudley. Katharine died in the thirty-sixth year of her age, and Lady Jane Grey officiated at her funeral as chief mourner. Katharine favored the Reformation, gave her influence to the University of Cambridge, and promoted the translation of the Scriptures.

Edward VI. succeeded his father, in 1547, under the protectorship of his uncle, the Duke of Somerset. He was amiable, religious, and learned for one of his years. In his time great strides were made towards the establishment of Protestantism in England. A new service-book, compiled by Cranmer and Ridley, assisted by eleven other divines, was drawn up and ordered to be used, and is known as the First Prayer-Book of Edward VI. He died in 1552.

Mary, the first Queen-regnant of England, was the only child of Henry VIII. and Katharine of Aragon who reached maturity. She is an historical example of the noxious effects that over-education has at a very tender age. Her precocious studies probably laid the foundation for her melancholy temper and delicate health. She lived in regal pomp as Princess of Wales, until her father's marriage with Anne Boleyn, when he ordered her to give up her title, and to call Elizabeth Princess of Wales. She said she would call the babe sister, and nothing more. Her father threatened, but neither threats nor deprivations had the least effect in bending her resolution. While her mother lived she would have suffered martyrdom rather than make a concession against the interest and dignity of that adored parent. She was sent to Hunsdon, where the infant Elizabeth was established with a magnificent household, and where her own situation was that of a bond-maiden, having no comfort except in her books. She was not even allowed to see her mother in her last illness. Anne Boleyn, before her execution, sent to ask Mary's pardon for all the wrongs she had heaped upon her. Jane Seymour was unable to effect a reconciliation between her and her father. Mary then held a joint household with her little sister at Hunsdon for three years. A few months after her father's marriage with Katharine Parr, Mary was restored to her rank at court, and was treated by him with much affection. It was through Katharine's influence that Mary translated from the Latin the whole of Erasmus's paraphrase of St. John's Gospel. As soon as her brother, Edward VI., died, she took prompt measures for maintaining her rights. At her coronation she recognized her sister Elizabeth in

all respects as next in rank to herself. She married Philip II. of Spain. During a severe illness which followed the Christmas festivities in the year of her marriage, when every faculty of body and of mind was prostrated for months, commenced that horrible persecution of the Protestants, headed by Gardiner and Bonner.* Many wholesome laws were made and revised by her. She was kind to the poor, courageous, magnanimous towards her sister Elizabeth, and desirous for the welfare of her country. Her motto was, "Time unveils truth." She died in 1558, aged forty-two, and was buried in the chapel of Henry VII. She was drawn into a war with France by her husband, in which the English lost Calais.

FRANCE.

Francis I., Count of Angoulême and Duke of Valois, was in the twenty-first year of his age when he came to the throne, A.D. 1515. He was brave, generous, gay, the idol of his people, and his court was the most brilliant and chivalrous that France had known. During intervals of peace he built and beautified many palaces. His establishments for learning, and the monuments of the arts which he encouraged, have handed down his name as "The Father and Restorer of Letters and the Arts."

Louisa of Savoy, Regent of France, was the daughter of Philip II., Duke of Savoy, and of Margaret of Bourbon. At the age of twelve

* The Stout Gospeller, Edward Underhill, escaped all persecution for his religion, though he had been in some danger whilst the queen's severe illness lasted. His enemies sometimes would tell him that warrants were out against him. To which the valiant Protestant said, "If they were, and he found them not duly signed, he should go further than Peter, who only cut off the ear of Malchus, for he should cut off the head and ears into the bargain of any messenger who served such warrant." He also added, "that he considered himself legally authorized in resisting to death any warrant which was not signed by *five* of the council;" but if the royal sign-manual had been affixed, he could not have said this. Burnett expressly says, neither Mary nor Cardinal Pole was ever at these councils, and that, in the midst of the persecutions, seldom more than three sat in consultation. Underhill took the precaution of walling up, with a good barrier of bricks, all his polemic library, in a niche of his bedchamber in Wood Street. He assures his reader they were all released from their confinement, as good as new, when the scene changed, at the accession of Elizabeth. Thus, this gallant gentleman of the pen and sword weathered all the political and religious storms of the reign of Mary, and lived prosperously, till a good old age, under the sway of Elizabeth. Underhill, who for his zeal in the Calvinist religion was called the "Hot Gospeller," was thrown into prison during the time between Mary's proclamation and her arrival at the Tower. Mary not only released him, but restored him to his place in the band of gentlemen pensioners, and, as he notices with great satisfaction, to his salary, without the deduction of the time of his arrest. Mary showed her judgment in acting thus; for this brave man, though he scorned to disavow his principles, was ever in time of danger an intrepid defender of her person.

she was married to Charles of Orleans, Count of Angoulême. She was obliged to conform to the will of Louis XI. and the taste of her husband, who loved retirement, and with whom she lived in the château de Cognac, where she nourished the germs of ambition, in the hope that she should one day have the opportunity of developing them. At the age of twenty Louisa was a widow, and the mother of two children, Francis I. and Margaret, afterwards Queen of Navarre, whose education she carefully superintended. Charles VIII. invited her to his court at Amboise, where she appeared in all the brilliancy of her youth and splendor. Louisa, after the death of Charles VIII., was welcomed by Louis XII., who had lost both of his sons, as the mother of the heir-presumptive. Although Anne of Bretagne and Louisa could with difficulty maintain the outward forms of politeness towards each other, yet Anne, when dying, named Louisa the guardian of her daughter, who married the Count of Angoulême three months after, in the year 1514. After the death of Louis XII., Louisa shared the government with her son, whose confidence in her was unbounded. After Francis's defeat at Pavia, she was accused by the whole nation of having been the cause of Bourbon's defection, of having abused the power confided in her, and of ruining the fortune of France. The greatest eulogy, however, is due to Louisa for the energy and talent she displayed under the difficult circumstances with which she had to contend. She wrote to the Emperor Charles V. to stipulate for the freedom of her son, and at length Charles offered Francis I. the choice of receiving as hostages, for the fulfillment of the conditions of his freedom, all the bravest cavaliers of France, or his two sons. It was left to Louisa to decide, and her decision did her much honor, because, stifling her natural feelings, she chose to retain the most illustrious and the most skillful generals, for the good of the country. After Francis returned to Paris, he gave his mother full power to treat with Margaret of Austria, the aunt of the Emperor, for a peace with the Low Countries. This "Ladies' Peace" took place at Cambray in 1529, and the foundation of the agreement was the liberation of the young princes. Louisa was attacked with the plague at Fontainebleau, whither she went to inspect the works of a castle which the king was building. Recovering temporarily, and wishing to escape further infection, she took the road to Blois, but was stopped at Grez, by indisposition, and died three days after, at the age of fifty-five, in the year 1531. She was buried at St. Denis with great magnificence and solemnity.

Claude of France, first wife of Francis I., although endowed with the amiable qualities of her father, Louis XII., had neither the talent nor

the energy of her mother, Anne of Bretagne. She was unfortunate in having an inconstant husband, whom she nevertheless tenderly loved; yet she experienced great consolation in the sincere homage which the nation rendered to her estimable qualities. She died in 1524, at the age of twenty-five, and was buried in the royal sepulchre of St. Denis. She was the mother of seven children,—the dauphin, Francis, who was poisoned at Valence in 1536; Henry II., King of France; Charles, Duke of Orleans; Madeline, wife of James V. of Scotland; and Margaret, who married Philibert Emanuel, Duke of Savoy; the other two died young.

The second wife of Francis I., the eldest sister of Charles V., was the daughter of Philip the Handsome and Joanna la Folle (insane), who, being left a widow at the age of twenty-six by a husband whom she adored, was so violently affected by his death that she lost her reason, and during the space of forty-four years languished in profound misery, forsaken and neglected by all. Her daughter, Eleanor of Austria, was born at Louvain in 1498, and gifted with all the most brilliant endowments of nature. She is described as having "laughing eyes, with eyebrows of fine black; a complexion of lilies and roses, small ivory teeth, a delicately-formed mouth, and a mellifluous voice." In 1514, Frederic II., brother of the Elector Palatine, who was at the court of Charles V., became greatly enamored of her, and the princess responded to his affection; but no sooner did Charles find it out than he banished Frederic from the court, and decided Eleanor's marriage with Emanuel the Great, the old King of Portugal. In 1519, the princess was married, and left a widow with two children in 1521. On her return to the court of Charles, Frederic renewed his attentions, but Eleanor, who acquiesced in all her brother's ambitious views, graciously accepted the hand of Francis I. This marriage was celebrated at the abbey of Vegres, near Bordeaux, and she was crowned at Saint Denis in 1531. Eleanor loved France, and was delighted with the brilliant welcome she received. The suavity of her manners and goodness of her heart rendered her the cherished idol of the court and people; but she was as unfortunate as her predecessor, Claude, in the infidelities of her husband, who neglected her for the Duchess d'Etampes. After the death of the king, Eleanor, who had no children, went to her brother, the Emperor, in Brabant. In 1556 she left the Low Countries for Spain, where she died at Talavera in 1558, aged sixty, and was interred at the Escorial.

AMERICA.

Amerigo Vespucci, from whom America accidentally received its name, was a native of Florence. He early made great progress in natural philosophy, astronomy, and geography, at that time the three principal branches of science studied at Florence, on account of their importance in relation to commerce. Inflamed with a passion for discovery, about the time that Columbus was making preparations for his second voyage Amerigo took service under the Spanish admiral Ojeda, as a pilot, and, sailing from Cadiz in 1499, arrived at what is now called Cumana, explored the bay of Paria, and sailed some hundred miles along the coast. He returned the autumn of that same year, but commenced a second voyage under Admiral Pinzon, which resulted in the discovery of a crowd of small islands in the south of the Gulf of Mexico. He was now allured by promises into the service of Emanuel the Great of Portugal; the first voyage was made in 1501, and the second in 1503. He lost one of his ships, and it was only after encountering great perils that the other five found refuge in All-Saints Bay, on the coast of Brazil. Humboldt's investigations led him to believe that the name *America* probably came from Germany. A selection of Amerigo's narratives of his voyages found its way into that country. Martin Waldseemüller, of Freiburg in Baden, translated it for a bookseller of St. Diez, in Lorraine. As the first account of the wonderful discovery, it was greedily devoured. Edition after edition was printed, and, according to Humboldt, it was Waldseemüller who proposed that the New World should be called America, in honor of the author. Afterwards this name was generally employed by geographical writers, and even the Spaniards and Portuguese adopted it. Amerigo died at Seville, in Spain, A.D. 1512.

The same year that Charles became Emperor, *Fernando Cortez*, sent by Velasquez, Governor of Cuba, landed in Mexico, conquered the Mexican Emperor Montezuma, and in 1521 Mexico became a province of Spain.

Ponce de Leon, seven years before, landed at St. Augustine, and gave the peninsula its present name of Florida.

Ferdinand Magellan, a famous Portuguese navigator, in the service of Charles, commissioned to explore the Molucca Islands by sailing westward, entered the straits since called by his name, September 20, 1520, and on the 27th of November discovered the South Pacific Ocean. *Vasco Nuñez de Balboa*, governor of the Spanish colony at the Isthmus of Darien (the first colony established in America), in

1513, while crossing the isthmus gained the summit of a high mountain, from which he discovered the Pacific Ocean. After falling on his knees and thanking God for the privilege of being the discoverer of this great ocean, he descended to the sea-shore and took possession of the whole coast in the name of the Spanish crown.

In 1524, *Verazzana*, a Florentine in the service of France, entered the harbors of New York and Newport, and explored the coasts of New England, Nova Scotia, and Newfoundland.

Jacques Cartier, a seaman of Bretagne, in 1534 explored the Gulf and the mouth of the St. Lawrence, and took possession of the country in the name of the King of France.

Francisco Pizarro discovered Peru in 1526. In 1528 he returned to Spain, carrying with him many beautiful and valuable ornaments in gold and silver, which he had obtained from the friendly and generous natives, as well as specimens of woolen cloths of silky texture and brilliant hue, and some lamas or alpacas, and, narrating the story of his discoveries before Charles V. and his ministers, described the wealth of the territories, and showed as proofs the things which he had brought with him; the right of the discovery and conquest of Peru was secured to him; and the honorable title of Captain-General of Peru was conferred upon him. On his side, he agreed to raise a certain number of followers, and to send the crown of Spain a fifth of all the treasures he should obtain. Within ten years, the great *conquistador* made the empire of Peru his own. Pizarro was a soldier of dauntless courage, inflexible constancy of purpose, and infinite resource; yet his success in Peru appears to have been more the result of chance than of calculation. His conquest of Peru is a drama in every act of which there is bloodshed; but the drama is at least consistent to the end. He lived a life of violence, and died a violent and bloody death,—falling a victim to a conspiracy in 1541.

ARTISTS.

Antonio Allegri, surnamed *Correggio*, from the place of his birth, a small town near Modena, now called Reggio, was the first among the moderns who displayed that grace and general beauty and softness of effect, the combined excellences of design and color, with taste and expression, for which he is still unrivaled. His chiaroscuro is perfect. He, or rather his imitators for him, founded what is called by some the Lombard, by others the Parma, school of painting. On first beholding, at Bologna, Raphael's glorious picture of St. Cecilia, he is said to have exclaimed, "I too am a painter." One of his most

famous pictures is the "Notte" (Night), lighted only from the celestial splendor beaming from the head of the infant Saviour; another is the famous "Magdalen," one of the most admired pictures in the world. In the Louvre are two of his celebrated pictures, the "Marriage of St. Catherine," and the "Antiope." In the British National Gallery are the Madonna, known as the "Vierge au Panier," the "Education of Cupid," and the famous "Ecce Homo," for which the British government paid fifty-seven thousand five hundred dollars. Correggio died in 1534, in his forty-first year, and was buried in the Franciscan convent of Reggio.

Andrea del Sarto was born at Florence in 1488. He painted many pieces for his native city. Francis I. induced him by a considerable salary to go to France in 1518. But his extravagant wife led him into acts of ingratitude towards the prince, and he returned to Italy. He was noted for his wonderful skill in imitation. He copied Raphael's portrait of Leo X. so exquisitely as even to deceive Giulio Romano, who had aided Raphael in the drapery. Among his most celebrated works is a "Burial in the Palace Pitti," the "Dead Saviour with Mary and the Saints," in the gallery of the grand duke, and a beautiful "Madonna" in the church of the Annunziata. In 1529, when Florence was taken, the soldiers, on entering the conventual refectory containing his "Last Supper," were struck with awe, and retired without committing any violence. His coloring in fresco, as well as in oil, was full of sweetness and force; his draperies are easy and graceful. He died of the plague, in 1530.

Titian Vercelli, one of the greatest Italian painters, was born at Capo del Cadore, in the Alps of the Friuli, in 1480. In portraits and landscapes he is deemed unrivaled. His principal residence was at Venice, though occasionally he accepted invitations from princes to their courts. At Ferrara he executed the portraits of the duke and duchess, and also that of the poet Ariosto, then a resident there. He was sent for to Rome by Cardinal Farnese, and attended Charles V. at Bologna, who was so pleased with the portrait he made of him that he conferred upon him the order of knighthood and granted him a pension, which was afterwards augmented by his son, Philip II. Most of the princes and leading men of the day were ambitious of being painted by him, so that his pictures are doubly valuable as portraits of eminent individuals and for beauty of execution. He resided some time both in Spain and Germany, but his home was Venice, where he lived in great splendor, and maintained the rank due to his genius. He retained the spirit and vigor of youth to the advanced age of ninety-six,

and then died of the plague, in 1576. The engravings from his pictures, including landscapes and pieces cut in wood, amounted to more than six hundred. The Emperor Charles is said to have picked up a brush which Titian let fall, and returned it, saying, "Titian is worthy of being served by an Emperor."

Hans Holbein was born in Basle in 1498. His talents procured him the acquaintance, and even the friendship, of Erasmus, in spite of the painter's rough and dissolute habits, which the philosopher exerted himself much to correct; and by his advice Holbein went to England. Erasmus also gave him letters to Sir Thomas More, who employed him to take portraits of his friends, and who introduced him to Henry VIII. That monarch, with all his faults, was a liberal encourager of the fine arts. At Henry's command, Holbein drew the portrait of Anne of Cleves, and of the dowager-Duchess of Milan, whom Henry thought of espousing. Holbein also painted most of the principal English nobility. On the occasion of some complaint made against Holbein by a courtier, Henry replied, "I can, if I please, make seven lords of seven plowmen; but I cannot make one Holbein even of seven lords." Holbein died of the plague at Whitehall, in 1554.

Benvenuto Cellini, a celebrated Italian gold-worker, sculptor, founder, and medaillleur, was born at Florence in 1500. During his youth, having been banished from Florence in consequence of an affray, he went to Rome, where he was employed by many distinguished patrons of art, but afterwards was allowed to return to Florence. Another affray compelled him to flee to Rome a second time, where he secured the favor of Clement VII. Benvenuto, by his own account, was as great in arms as in art; he declared that it was himself who killed the Constable Bourbon at the siege of Rome. His reckless conduct for some years compelled him to shift constantly between Rome and Florence, Mantua and Naples. In 1537 he went to France, where he was very honorably received. Illness, however, obliged him once more to return to Rome, where he had the misfortune to be imprisoned on a charge of having plundered the treasures in the castle of St. Angelo during the siege of Rome. At length he was liberated through the intercession of the Cardinal of Ferrara, for whom he executed, out of gratitude, a fine cup, and various other works. He accompanied his deliverer to France, and entered the service of Francis I.; but, having incurred the displeasure of the ruling favorite, the Duchess d'Etampes, he returned to Florence,—not, however, until, as usual, he had settled some matters with his sword,—where, under the patronage of Cosmo de Medici, he executed several fine

works in metal and marble, among them the celebrated bronze group of "Perseus with the Head of Medusa," which now decorates the market-place in Florence. In his fifty-eighth year he commenced to write his autobiography, and died in 1570 or 1572.

THE ORDER OF JESUITS.

This order was founded by Ignatius Loyola, a Spaniard, in 1540. While Luther was striving for the reformation of the Church in the north, Loyola was bent on its reformation in the south. There were already so many orders, however, that Pope Paul III. at first refused to confirm the new one. But when Loyola proposed that besides the three vows of chastity, poverty, and *monastic* obedience, the members of this society would take another,—of *implicit obedience to the Pope*, binding themselves to go wherever he should command in the service of religion, and without requiring anything for their support from the Holy See,—the offer was impossible for the Pope to resist, and he became the patron of their order. The essential duties of the order were three,—preaching, in the first place; secondly, the guidance of souls, through confession; and thirdly, the education of the young. No women were admitted into it. Loyola, the "Methodist" of Catholicism in Rome in the sixteenth century, might have been found fault with as the author of irregularities precisely similar to those which have marked the course of like-minded preachers in modern times and among ourselves. But the Church of Rome has never been jealous of disorders that do not seem to threaten her own authority. Protestant churches, on the contrary, have lost ground among the people, and have foregone their advantages, by indulging a fastidious repugnance towards whatever displeased an aristocratic taste in matters of religion. Protestant churches have grudged salvation when preached to the people in their own style. Rome has been far less nice. When Loyola commenced his sermon, a breathless silence reigned throughout the church; as he went on there was a perceptible pressure towards the pulpit; sighs soon became audible on every side; then these sighs swelled into sobs, and sobs into groans. Some fell on the pavement as if lifeless. Now and then a hitherto obdurate offender would push forward, throw himself at the feet of the preacher as he left the pulpit, and, with convulsive struggles, make a loud confession of his crimes. Men from every class of society, including even dignified ecclesiastics, were numbered among the conquests of *preaching in earnest*. Loyola died in 1556. Ingolstadt became the headquarters of this order in Germany.

POPE PAUL III.

Cardinal Alessandro Farnese was raised to the papal see under the title of Paul III.; and as his great aim was the aggrandizement of his family, he erected Parma and Piacenza into a duchy, which he bestowed on his natural son, Pietro Luigi. Pietro was one of the most dissolute men of his period, and, after many tyrannical attempts to limit the privileges of the nobles, he was assassinated, in 1547. He was succeeded by his son Ottavio, who married Margaret, a natural daughter of the Emperor Charles V., and whose reign was marked by an unbroken peace and by various efforts made for the good of his subjects.

THE FUGGER FAMILY.

This was one of the most remarkable families in Germany, which, rising by industry and commerce, founded numerous lines of counts, and even princes. The ancestor of the family was John Fugger, master-weaver in Graben, near Augsburg. His son John was one of the council of twelve in the weaver guild, and an assessor of the Heilige Vehme. He died in 1409, and left what was a large fortune for the times, three thousand florins. His descendants married into the noblest families, and were raised by the Emperor Maximilian to the rank of nobles. The Emperor mortgaged to them, for seventy thousand guldens, the county of Kirchberg and the lordship of Weissenhorn, and received from them afterwards, through the mediation of Pope Julius II., one hundred and seventy thousand ducats, to assist in carrying on the war against Venice. Ulrich Fugger, who died in 1510, devoted himself especially to the commerce that he opened up with Austria, and there was almost no object that did not enter into his speculations; even the masterpieces of Albert Dürer went through his hands into Italy. Thus their wealth went on increasing, until the time of Charles V., when their house attained its greatest splendor. Raimond and Antoine, two brothers, took the business of their family in 1506. The two brothers were zealous Catholics, and with their wealth supported Eck in his opposition to Luther. During the diet held by Charles V. at Augsburg in 1530, the Emperor lived in Antoine's splendid house in the Wine Market. On this occasion he raised both brothers to the rank of counts, and invested them with the still mortgaged properties of Kirchberg and Weissenhorn; and a letter under the imperial seal conferred on them the rights of princes. For the support they afforded him in his expedition against Algiers they received the right of coining money. It is of Antoine that the

Emperor Charles is said to have remarked, while being shown the royal treasury in Paris, "There is a linen-weaver in Augsburg who could pay all that out of his own purse." The Emperor Ferdinand raised the splendor of their house still higher, while confirming the imperial letters of Charles, by conferring great additional privileges on the two oldest of the family, Counts John and Jerome. As nobles, they continued to carry on their commerce and to increase their wealth. They possessed the most extensive libraries and collections of objects of art, maintained painters and musicians, and liberally encouraged art and science. Their houses and gardens were masterpieces of the architecture and taste of the times. Thus there is nothing incredible in the anecdote that Antoine on one occasion, when Charles V. was his visitor, lighted a fire of cinnamon-wood with the Emperor's bond for money lent him. Charles ought to have been able to pay his bonds from the fines he exacted from those who were engaged in the Smalkaldic War. The Hessian states were obliged to pay him one hundred and fifty thousand gold florins; the city of Ulm, one hundred thousand; Frankfort, eighty thousand; Memmingen, fifty thousand; Augsburg, one hundred and fifty thousand; and Duke Ulric of Würtemberg, three hundred thousand.

While thus indulging in splendor, the Fuggers were not less bent on doing good. They bought houses in one of the suburbs of Augsburg, pulled them down, and built one hundred and eight smaller houses, which they let to poor citizens at a low rent. This was the origin of the "Fuggerei," which still remains under the same name, with its own walls and gates. Many other benevolent institutions were set on foot by Antoine and his sons. It is questionable if we are to rank among their benefactions their calling the Jesuits to Augsburg and giving them buildings and revenues for a college, church, and school. The race is still continued in the two principal lines of Raimond and Antoine, besides collateral branches. Their domains are chiefly in Bavaria. A collection of portraits of the most important members of this great house appeared at Augsburg in 1593.

The Welser were an old patrician family in Augsburg, now extinct. A Julius Welser is mentioned under the Emperor Otho I., who was made a noble, in 959, on account of his services against the Hungarians. His son Octavianus settled in Augsburg; and from him sprang the family which became so famous. Bartholomew Welser was privy councilor of Charles V., and so wealthy that, in conjunction with the family of Fugger, he lent one million two hundred thousand florins to the Emperor. With the consent of the Emperor, he equipped, in 1528,

three vessels in Spain, which sailed under command of Ambrose Dalfinger of Ulm to America, and took possession of the province of Venezuela, which the Emperor made over to Welser as a pledge. The Welser remained twenty-six years in possession of Venezuela, but after the death of Charles V. the Spaniards deprived them of it. The celebrated Philippina Welser was niece of the above-mentioned Welser, and daughter of his brother Francis. She had received an uncommonly good education, and was of great beauty, so that Ferdinand (whose father became subsequently the Emperor Ferdinand I.) fell in love with her, in 1547, in Augsburg. She refused all the offers of the young duke, then but nineteen years old, except on condition of marriage. The ceremony was privately performed in 1550, without the knowledge of his father or his uncle, Charles V. The Archduke Ferdinand was much incensed when he heard of it, and for a long time refused to see his son. It was not till after eight years that his father was reconciled. Philippina died thirty years after the marriage, at Innspruck, in 1580. The archduke, her husband, honored her memory by a medal, with the inscription, *Dive Philippina*. Of her two sons, the elder, Andrew, became a cardinal; the second, Charles, distinguished himself in the wars in Spain and Hungary, and died in 1618, without leaving any children.

CHARLES V. IN THE MONASTERY OF ST. JEROME OF YUSTE OR JUST.

After Charles's abdication, a fleet was assembled at Flushing early in September, 1556, for the purpose of conveying him to Spain. He was attended to the coast by his son, Philip II. of Spain; by his nephew and daughter, Maximilian and Mary, King and Queen of Bohemia; and by many nobles of the Netherlands. He was likewise accompanied by his two sisters, who were to be the companions of his voyage, being, like himself, about to seek retirement in Spain.

Of these royal ladies, the elder was the gentle and once beautiful Eleanor, Queen-dowager of Portugal and France. She was now in her fifty-eighth year, and much broken in health. In youth the favorite sister of the Emperor, and in later days always addressed by him as *Madame my best sister*, she had nevertheless been the especial victim of his policy and ambition.

The other sister, Mary, Queen-dowager of Hungary, was five years younger than Eleanor, and a woman of a very different stamp. Her husband, Louis II., had been slain in 1526, fighting the Turks among the marshes of Mohacz. Inconsolable for his loss, Mary, then only twenty-three years of age, took a vow of perpetual widowhood, a vow

from which she never sought a dispensation. In spite of this act of feminine devotion, she was, even in that age of manly women, remarkable for her intrepid spirit and her iron frame. To much of the bodily strength of her Polish ancestress, Cymburgis of the Hammer-fist, she united the cool head and strong will of her brother Charles. Hunting and hawking she loved like Mary of Burgundy, and her horsemanship must have delighted the knightly heart of her grandsire Maximilian. Not only could she bring down her deer with unerring aim, but, tucking up her sleeves and drawing her knife, she would cut the animal's throat and rip it open in as good style as the best of the royal foresters. To the firm hand of this Amazon sister the Emperor very wisely committed the government of the turbulent Low Countries. During more than twenty stormy years she administered it with much vigor and success, now foiling the ambitious schemes of Denmark and of France, now repressing Anabaptist or Lutheran risings, and always gathering as she could the sinews of war for the imperial armies abroad. Her latest exploit was a foray, during the siege of Metz, into French Picardy, which she led in person with so much courage and skill that Henry II. found it necessary to come to the rescue of his province. She was now in her fifty-second year, bronzed rather than broken by her toils, and still fit for the council or the saddle.

The royal party embarked on the 13th of September, and landed at Laredo on the 28th of the same month. Charles's personal suite consisted of one hundred and fifty persons. The Princess Regent of Spain, Charles's second daughter Juana, widow of the Prince of Brazil, mother of the celebrated *Don Sebastian*, ordered Luis Quixada, the Emperor's chamberlain, who had preceded him to Spain, to prepare a residence for her father at Valladolid. Having done this, the stout old soldier hastened to meet the Emperor, whose feeble state of health required that he should travel by easy stages. On the road they were met by Don Enrique de Guzman, coming from court, charged with a large stock of provisions and an ample supply of conserves. These latter dainties the Emperor desired to taste, and, finding their quality good, he gave orders that they were to be kept sacred for his peculiar eating. Here Quixada wrote, by the Emperor's orders, to court, desiring that a regular supply of melons should be sent for the imperial table, and that some portable glass windows should be got ready for use on the journey beyond Valladolid, as the nights were already becoming chill. His sisters did not travel in company with their brother, but kept one day's march in the rear, as it would have been difficult to lodge their combined followers. Addresses came from the corporations

of Burgos, Salamanca, Palencia, Pampeluna, and other cities, and from the Archbishop of Toledo and other prelates. While the Emperor made his entry into Burgos the bells of the cathedral rang a peal of welcome, and at night the chapter made a still finer display of loyalty in a grand illumination of its steeples. For once sombre Burgos, which was said to wear mourning for all Castile, seems to have laid aside its weeds.

The fifth day of his journey he rested at the village of Cabezon, where the Infant, Don Carlos, was in waiting by his directions. It was the first time the Emperor had seen the unhappy heir of his name and his honors. He embraced him with much appearance of affection, and made him sup at his table. During the meal the prince took a fancy to a little portable chafing-dish which the Emperor carried in his hand for warmth, and begged to have it for his own; to which the proprietor replied that he should have it as soon as he was dead and had no further use for it. Charles would not accept the honors of a public reception at Valladolid, but desired that the pomps prepared for the occasion might be reserved until the arrival of the queens, who were also on the road. Accordingly, he made his entry into the city without parade of any kind, and was received in the court of the palace by his grandson, Don Carlos, and by his daughter Juana, the princess-regent. Valladolid was at this time at the height of its prosperity, as the wealthy and flourishing capital of the Spanish monarchy.

Juana soon after her widowhood was recalled to Spain to govern that country as regent for her father, and now for her brother, Philip II. This high post she filled with firmness and moderation, displaying no want of sagacity, except in her policy towards the enthusiasts for religious reform, whom she treated with the foolish severity practiced by many of the mildest and wisest rulers of the time. Of personal ambition she appears to have been entirely free. For many months before her brother returned to Spain, she was constantly urging him to come back and relieve her of the burden of power. To her father her deference was ever readily and affectionately paid.

While at Valladolid, the Emperor and his suite were lodged in the house of Don Gomez Perez de las Marinas. Another residence was assigned to the queens, who were charmed with their reception and the abode assigned them. During his stay at Valladolid, the Emperor every day held long conferences on public affairs with the princess-regent and the secretary Vasquez. He was anxious now to give the heads of government his parting advice,—advice which, as the event proved, he continued to transmit from Yuste by every post, and which was ended only with his powers of hearing and dictating dispatches.

Don Carlos was at this time eleven years old, and had already shown symptoms of that mental malady which darkened the long life of Queen Joanna, his great-grandmother by the side both of his father, Philip of Spain, and of his mother, Mary of Portugal. Of a sullen and passionate temper, he lived in a state of perpetual rebellion against his aunt, and displayed in the nursery the weakly, mischievous spirit which marked his short career at his father's court. Notwithstanding what poets have said of him, his high faculties for good or evil, if he possessed them, certainly escaped the shrewd insight of his grandfather, who regarded him merely as a forward and untractable child, whose future interests would be best served by a present unsparing use of the rod. Recommending, therefore, to the princess an increased severity of discipline in the management of her nephew, the Emperor remarked to his sisters that he had observed with concern the boy's unpromising conduct and manners, and that it was very doubtful how he would grow up. This opinion was told by Queen Eleanor to her nephew, Philip II., who had requested his aunt to note carefully the impression made by his son; and it is said to have laid the foundation for the aversion which the king entertained towards Carlos.

On the 4th of November, Charles set out for Xarandilla, a village in the neighborhood of Yuste, where he proposed to remain until his conventional abode was ready. Here the Emperor, wrapped in a robe made of eider-down, as the weather was cold and stormy, sat by the fireside, in good health and spirits, attended by his secretary, Gaztelu, who read to him the dispatches which arrived almost daily from Valladolid, and wrote replies from his dictation. The course of events in Flanders was watched by Charles with especial interest.

By a remarkable coincidence, the year which saw the abdication of the Emperor, at the age of fifty-six, to prepare for his tomb, saw Caraffa elected Pope, at the age of eighty, and plunging into the vortex of political life with all the reckless ardor of a fiery youth. No Gregory or Alexander ever played the old pontifical game of usurpation and nepotism with more arrogance and audacity than Paul IV. Hating Spain with the hatred of an hereditary bondsman, the old volcanic Neapolitan poured forth against her torrents of abuse. War seemed to offer a prospect not only of gratifying his hatred with sharper weapons than words, but of providing his nephews with duchies, which were seldom to be obtained in times of peace. And although Henry II., only a few months before, had concluded a truce for five years with Spain, the Pope lured France across the Alps by holding out the crown of Naples as the reward. Admiral Coligny was therefore sent to carry

fire and sword into Flanders; and the gallant Duke of Guise, the ablest general in France, led twenty thousand of her best troops into Italy.

Philip II. gave the command of the Netherlands to Emanuel Philibert, the Duke of Savoy; he intrusted the Duke of Alva with the defense of Naples; and he himself went to England and secured the co-operation of the love-sick Mary, in the teeth of her distrustful and Spain-hating ministers and people.

After a lapse of three centuries, Emanuel Philibert still ranks as the most able and honest prince of the royal house of Savoy. His father, Duke Charles, in the long wars between Francis I. and Charles V., had been nearly stripped of his territory. Part was conquered by his nephew and enemy the king, and part was held, for security's sake, in the strong grasp of his brother-in-law and friend the Emperor. Happily, his son, the young Ironhead, as he was called, had early foreseen that the career of a soldier of fortune was the only path by which he could hope to regain his position among the princes of Europe. He therefore gave himself heart and soul to the profession of arms, and, having served with distinction under his imperial uncle in Germany and Flanders, he was already, though still under thirty, reckoned one of the best captains in the service of Spain.

Ferdinand, Duke of Alva, became in his old age the last of the great soldiers of Castile. His grandfather, the first duke, under Ferdinand the Catholic, had led the Christian chivalry to the siege of Granada; his father had left his bones among the Moors in the African isle of Zerbi; and he himself had fought by the side of the Emperor on the banks of the Danube, beneath the walls of Tunis, in Provence and Dauphiny, and in the Protestant electorates. He had held independent commands of importance in Catalonia and Navarre, and he had commanded in chief in the campaign which closed with the victory at Mühlberg and the capture of John Frederic of Saxony. These triumphs had been clouded by his repulse from Metz, and his late reverses in the Milanese; but the stern disciplinarian was still hardly past the prime of life, and was in full favor with his sovereign; and he joined the army of Naples, resolved to win back on the Roman Campagna the laurels which he had lost on the plains of the Po.

Several minor matters also claimed the Emperor's attention. Foremost among them were negotiations with the court of Portugal touching the Infanta Mary. Queen Eleanor, her mother, had not seen her since the time of her first widowhood, when she had been recalled to Castile by the Emperor, and had left her baby under the care of her half-brother, John III. Eleanor parted with her child sadly against her

will, and only because the usages of Portugal and the clamors of the city of Lisbon did not permit an Infanta to leave the kingdom. It had since been the main object of the fond mother's heart to negotiate a marriage which should set her free and once more reunite them. Eleanor first affianced her daughter to the dauphin, who did not live to fulfill his engagement; then she vainly endeavored to marry her to Maximilian, King of Bohemia, and, lastly, proposed Philip of Castile; but Philip, seeing that he could get Mary Tudor and England, broke his engagement. Philip's falseness had filled Mary's heart with bitterness towards Spain and her Spanish relations, and with distrust of any proposal which came from beyond the Guadiana. She even demurred about complying with the desire of her mother, that they should meet on the frontiers of the two kingdoms. Charles at first declined to interfere; but he found it impossible to resist the entreaties of his sisters and the princess-regent, and therefore had several interviews with the Portuguese ambassador in regard to this matter.

News from Fez, brought by a Jew from Barbary, rendered it probable that Moorish rovers, instigated by the King of France, would soon avenge on the coasts of Spain the ravages committed by the Spanish troops on the frontiers of Picardy.

Meanwhile, the household, especially the Flemish and more numerous portion of it, was in a state of discontent bordering on mutiny. The progress on the works of Yuste was discussed every day and hurried forward, so that the Emperor might move and all might have a healthier place and better accommodations. The Flemings, although they complained, looked fair and fat, according to the testimony of the Castilians, and fed voraciously on the "hams and other bucolic meats" of Estremadura, a province still unrivaled in its swine and its savory preparations of pork.

In this matter of eating, as in many other habits, the Emperor was himself a true Fleming. His early tendency to gout was increased by his indulgences at table, which generally far exceeded his feeble powers of digestion. Roger Ascham, standing "hard by the imperial table at the feast of the Golden Fleece," watched with wonder the Emperor's progress through "sod beef, roast mutton, baked hare," after which "he fed well of a capon," drinking also, says the fellow of St. John's, "the best that ever I saw; he had his head in the glass five times as long as any of them, and never drank less than a good quart at once of Rhenish wine." Eating was now the only physical gratification which he could enjoy, or was unable to resist. The Emperor's weakness being generally known, dainties of all kinds were

sent to him as presents. Mutton, pork, and game soon filled the castle-larder. One day the Count of Oropesa sent an offering of game; another day a pair of fat calves arrived from the Archbishop of Saragossa; the Archbishop of Toledo and the Duchess of Frias were constant in their gifts of venison, fruit, and preserves; and supplies of all kinds came at regular intervals from Seville and from Portugal. Luis Quixada beheld with dismay the long trains of mules laden, as it were, with gout and bile. If the Emperor made a hearty meal without being the worse for it, the mayor-domo noted the fact with exultation; but he always interposed between his master and an eel-pie, as, in other days, he would have thrown himself between the imperial person and the point of a Moorish lance.

Luis Quixada began his career as a page in the imperial household, and served with distinction under the Emperor at Tunis. His sagacity allayed the discord between the Spanish and Italians about the post of honor before Goleta; and he was wounded while leading his company to the assault of its bastions. At Tarvanna he was again at the head of a storming-party, when his younger brother, Juan, fell at his side, slain by a ball from a French arquebus. His services soon raised him to the grade of a colonel, and he was also promoted, in the imperial household, to the post of deputy mayor-domo, under the Duke of Alva, and in that capacity constantly attended the person and obtained the entire confidence of the Emperor. In 1549 he married Donna Magdalena de Ulloa, a lady of blood as blue and nature as gentle as any in Castile. To Quixada's care the Emperor confided his illegitimate son, in later years so famous as Don John of Austria. The boy was sent to Spain in 1550, in his fourth year, under the name of Geronimo, in charge of Massi, a favorite musician of the Emperor, who was told that he was the son of Adrian de Bues, one of the gentlemen of the imperial chamber. After this man's death, in 1554, he was intrusted to the care of Quixada, who sent him to his wife, commanding him to her care as "the son of a great man, his dear friend." Magdalena, who had no children of her own, took the pretty boy to her heart, and watched over him with the tenderest solicitude. The parental care of his guardians, whom he called, according to a usual mode of Castilian endearment, his uncle and aunt, he returned with the affection of a son. Quixada stands forth the type of the cavalier, an "old rusty Christian" of Castile, spare and sinewy of frame, and somewhat formal and severe in the cut of his beard and the stateliness of his manners; in character reserved and punctilious, but true as steel to the cause espoused or the duty undertaken; keen

and clear in his insight into men and things around him, yet devoutly believing his master the greatest prince that ever had been or was to be; proud of himself, his family, and his services, and inclined, in a grave, decorous way, to exaggerate their importance; a true son of the Church, with an instinctive distrust of its ministers; a hater of Jews, Turks, heretics, friars, and Flemings; somewhat testy, somewhat obstinate, full of strong sense and strong prejudice; a warm-hearted, energetic, and honest man. Martin Gaztelu, the secretary, comes next to the mayor-domo in order of precedence, and in the importance of his functions. His place was one of great trust. The whole of the Emperor's correspondence passed through his hands. Even the most private and confidential letters addressed to the princess-regent by her father were generally written at his dictation by Gaztelu; for the imperial fingers were seldom sufficiently free from gout to be able to do more than add a brief postscript, in which Donna Juana was assured of the affection of her *buen padre Carlos*. William van Male, born at Bruges, of a noble but decayed family, was the scholar and man of letters in the Emperor's household. His learning, intelligence, industry, cheerful disposition, and simple nature made him a great favorite with the Emperor, who soon could scarcely dispense with his attendance by day or night. One of the Emperor's literary recreations was to make a version, in Castilian prose, of the old and popular French poem, the *Chevalier Délibéré*, which he gave to Van Male to pass through the press. The doctor of the court was a young Fleming, named Henry Mathys; and when it was thought advisable, Cornelio, a Spaniard, who had long been physician to the Emperor, was summoned from Valladolid. Mathys, however, appears to have discharged his functions creditably. Charles brought Giovanni Torriano, a native of Cremona, to Estremadura to take care of his clocks and watches, and to construct these and other pieces of mechanism for the amusement of his leisure hours.

During the Emperor's stay at Xarandilla, Juan de Regla, whom he had chosen for his confessor from the order of St. Jerome, came to pay him a visit. On being introduced into the imperial presence, Regla spoke of the great reluctance he had felt in accepting a post of such weighty responsibility. "Never fear," said Charles, somewhat maliciously, as if conscious that he was dealing with a hypocrite; "before I left Flanders, five doctors were engaged for a whole year in easing my conscience; so you will have nothing to answer for but what happens here."

Besides the envoys and other officials whom state affairs called to

Xarandilla, there were several ancient servants of the Emperor who came thither to tender the homage of their loyalty. One of these deserves especial notice for the place he holds in the history not only of Spain, but also of the religious struggles of the sixteenth century,—Francisco Borja, who, a few years before, had exchanged his dukedom of Gandia for the robe of the order of Jesus. In his brilliant youth this remarkable man had been the pride of the Spanish nobility. He was the heir of a great and wealthy house, a branch of the royal line of Aragon, which had already given two pontiffs to Rome, and to history several personages remarkable for the brightness of their virtues and others notorious for their crimes. Francisco was distinguished no less by the favor of the Emperor than by the splendor of his birth, the grace of his person, and the endowments of his mind. Born to be a courtier and a soldier, he was also an accomplished scholar, and no inconsiderable statesman. He broke horses and trained hawks as well as the most expert master of the ménage and the mews; he composed masses which long kept their places in the choirs of Spain; he was well versed in polite learning, and deeply read in mathematics; he wrote Latin and Castilian, as his works still testify, with ease and grace; he served in Africa and Italy with distinction; and, as viceroy of Catalonia, he displayed abilities for administration which in a few years might have placed him high among the Mendozas and De Lannoys. The pleasures and honors of the world, however, seemed from the first to have but slender attraction for the man so rarely fitted to obtain them. These tendencies were confirmed by an accident which followed the death of Queen Isabella. As her master of horse, it was Borja's duty to attend the body from Toledo to the royal chapel of Granada, and to make oath to its identity ere it was laid in the grave. But when the coffin was opened, the progress of decay had been so rapid that the mild and lovely face of Isabella could no longer be recognized by the most trusted and faithful of her servants. His conscience would not allow him to swear that these remains were those of his royal mistress, but only that, having watched day and night beside it, he felt convinced that it could be no other than the form which he had seen enshrouded in Toledo. A few years later, the death of his beautiful and excellent wife snapped the dearest tie which bound him to the world. Having erected a Jesuits' college in Gandia, their first establishment of that kind in Europe, and his eldest son and his two daughters having married, he put his affairs in order, and entered the young and still struggling society of Ignatius Loyola. In 1548, in the thirty-eighth year of his age, he obtained the

Emperor's leave to make his son fifth duke of Gandia, and he became Father Francis of the company of Jesus.

Learning that the Emperor had inquired frequently about him, Father Francis the Sinner, for so Borja called himself, arrived at Xarandilla on the 17th of December. The Emperor received Borja with a cordiality which was more foreign to his nature than his habits, but which on this occasion was probably sincere. Both he and his Jesuit guest had withdrawn from the pomps and vanities of life; but, custom being stronger than reason or faith, their greetings were as ceremonious as if they had been exchanged beneath the canopy of state at Augsburg or Valladolid. Not only did the priest, lapsing into the ways of the grandee, kneel to kiss the hand of the Emperor, but he even insisted on remaining upon his knees during the interview. Charles, who addressed him as duke, succeeded in inducing him to assume a less humble attitude only by refusing to converse with him until he should have taken a chair and put on his hat.

The talk of the Emperor and his guest sometimes reverted to old days. "Do you remember," said Charles, "how I told you, in 1542, at Monçon, during the holding of the cortes of Aragon, of my intention of abdicating the throne? I spoke of it to but one person besides." The Jesuit replied that he had kept the secret truly, but that now he hoped he might mention the mark of confidence with which he had been honored. "Yes," said Charles, "now that the thing is done, you may say what you will." After a visit of five days, Borja took his leave and returned to Plasencia.

Until the close of the year 1556, the Emperor had enjoyed what were for him remarkably good health and spirits. In the latter weeks of that year he had been able to devote two hours a day to his accounts, and to reckon with Luis Quixada the sums due to the servants whom he was about to discharge. When the weather was fine, he used to go out with his fowling-piece, and even walk at a tolerably brisk pace. His chief annoyance was the state of his fingers, which were so much swollen and disabled by gout that he remarked, on receiving from the Duchess of Frias a present of a chased silver saucepan and a packet of perfumed gloves, "If she sends gloves, she had better also send hands to wear them on." But in the latter part of December he felt several twinges of gout, and kept his bed for a week. Nevertheless, his appetite continued keen; and he one day paid the wife of Quixada the compliment of committing an excess upon sausages and olives which the good lady had sent him from Villagarcia. He complained afterwards of a sore throat, an inconvenience which the mayor-domo did

not much deplore, saying, sententiously, "Shut your mouth, and the gout will get well."

Dispatches now came in from Italy, announcing the truce of forty days which the Duke of Alva had made with the Pope and his nephew, after driving the papal troops out of the town and citadel of Ostia. The Emperor was very angry that Alva had not pushed on to Rome. The aspect, too, of affairs in Flanders and the Mediterranean was alarming. He wrote to the princess-regent to use all diligence in raising men and money to carry on the wars, and especially to provide for the defense of Oran, which was then threatened by the Moors. "If Oran be lost," he wrote, "I hope I shall not be in Spain or the Indies, but in some place where I shall not hear of so great an affront to the king, and disaster to these realms."

At length the buildings at Yuste were in readiness. Fifty-two servants, eight mules, a small one-eyed horse, two litters, and a hand-chair were all that the Emperor took with him to Yuste, where he arrived February 3, 1557. He was not surrounded at Yuste with the splendors of his host of Augsburg; but neither did the fashions of the sumptuous Fugger prevail at Ghent or at Innspruck. For the hangings of his bedroom he preferred sombre black to gayer arras; but he had brought from Flanders suits of rich tapestry, wrought with figures, landscapes, or flowers, more than sufficient to hang the rest of the apartments; the supply of cushions, eider-down quilts, and linen was luxuriously ample; his friends sat on chairs covered with black velvet; and he himself reposed either on a chair with wheels, or in an easy-chair furnished with six cushions and a footstool. Of gold and silver plate he had upwards of thirteen thousand ounces; he washed his hands in silver basins with water poured from silver ewers; the meanest utensil of his chamber was of the same noble material; and from the brief description of his cups, vases, candlesticks, and salt-cellars, it seems probable that his table was graced with several masterpieces of Tobbia and Cellini.

In his dress he had ever been plain to parsimony; his suit of sober black was no doubt the same, or such another, as that painted by Titian in the fine portrait wherein the Emperor still sits before us, pale, thoughtful, and dignified, in the Belvedere Palace at Vienna; and he probably gave audience, as described by Roger Ascham, in such a "gowne of black taffety and furred night-cap, like a great codpiece; sitting sick in his chamber at Augsburg, and looking like my friend the parson of Epurstone." In his soldier days he would knot and patch a broken sword-belt until it would have disgraced a private

trooper; and he even carried his love of petty economy so far that, being caught in a shower near Nuremberg, he took off his velvet cap, which happened to be new, and sheltered it under his arm, going bare-headed in the rain until an old cap was brought him from the town.

Although the Emperor despised the vulgar gewgaws of wealth and power, his retreat was adorned with some pictures, few, but well chosen, and worthy of a discerning lover of art and of the patron and friend of Titian. A composition on the subject of the Trinity, and three pictures of Our Lady, by that great master, filled the apartments with poetry and beauty; and, as specimens of his skill in another style, there were portraits of the recluse himself and of his Empress. Our Lord bearing His Cross, and several other sacred pictures, came from the easel of "Maestro Miguel" of Antwerp. Three cased miniatures of the Empress, painted in her youthful beauty, soon after the honeymoon in the Alhambra, kept alive Charles's recollections of the wife whom he had lost. Besides these, there were also portraits of Mary Tudor, Philip, the princess-regent, the Queen of Bohemia, his sisters, the Duchess of Parma, and the King of France, to enliven the apartments, as well as to occupy his daily thoughts and nightly dreams. From Charles's bedroom a door or window had been cut into the church, through the chancel wall, and close to the high altar, so that he could have the benefit of the services when ill or indisposed, and could see and hear without being seen. Long tradition, which there seems little reason to doubt, adds, that over the high altar of the convent, and in sight of his own bed, he had placed that celebrated painting called the "Glory" of Titian, a picture of the Last Judgment, in which Charles, his wife, and their royal children were represented, in the master's grandest style, as conducted by angels into life eternal. Another masterpiece of the great Venetian—St. Jerome praying in his cavern, with a beautiful landscape in the distance—adorned the altar-piece of his private oratory. The palace of Yuste was less rich in books than in pictures. The library indeed barely exceeded thirty volumes, chiefly works of devotion or of science.

Music, ever one of the favorite pleasures of Charles, here also lent its charms to soothe the cares which followed him from the world, and the dyspepsia from which he would not even try to escape. The order of St. Jerome being desirous to gratify the taste of their guest, the general had reinforced the choir of Yuste with fourteen or fifteen friars, chosen from the different monasteries under their sway for their fine voices and musical skill. In the management of the choir and organ the Emperor took a lively interest; and from the window of his bed-

room his voice might often be heard accompanying the chant of the friars. His ear never failed to detect a wrong note, and the mouth whence it came; and he would frequently mention the name of the offender, with the addition of some epithet savoring more of the camp than the cloister. A singing-master from Plasencia, being one day in the church, ventured to join in the service; but he had not sung many bars before orders came down from the Emperor that the interloper should be either silenced or turned out.

Eloquence was likewise an art which the Emperor loved; and three chaplains, who were deemed the best preachers in the fold of St. Jerome, were ordered to repair to Yuste for his delectation. The foremost of these was Fray Francisco de Villalva, preacher to the great hospital at Saragossa, whence he was summoned to Yuste. There his eloquence charmed the Emperor, as it had charmed the peasants of Zamora; and he so eclipsed his colleagues that they seem to have been seldom called to the pulpit, except during a few weeks when Charles, at the urgent request of the city of Saragossa, spared Villalva for awhile to his old admirers.

The habits of Charles accorded well with the monotony of monastic life. Every morning Father Regla appeared at his bedside to inquire how he had passed the night, and to assist him in his private devotions. He then rose, and was dressed by his valets; after which he heard mass, going down, when his health permitted, into the church. According to his invariable custom, which in Italy gave rise to the saying *dalla messa alla mensa*,—from mass to mess,—he went from these devotions to dinner, about noon. The meal was long, for his appetite was voracious. The physician attended him at the table, and at least learned the causes of the mischief which his art was to counteract. The patient, while he dined, conversed with the doctor on matters of science, generally of natural history. The cloth being withdrawn, the confessor usually read aloud from one of the Emperor's favorite divines, Augustine, Jerome, or Bernard, an exercise which was followed by conversation and an hour of slumber. At three o'clock the monks were mustered in the convent to hear a sermon, or a passage read from the Bible, frequently from the Epistle to the Romans, the book which the Emperor preferred. The rest of the afternoon was devoted to seeing the official people from court, or to the transaction of business with his secretary. Sometimes the workshop of Giovanni, or, as he was usually called, Torriano, was the resort of the Emperor during his spare time. He was very fond of clocks and watches, and much interested in an elaborate astronomical time-piece, at which Torriano

had long been at work, and which, besides the ordinary duties of a clock, was to tell the days of the month and year, and to denote the movements of the planets.

Sometimes the Emperor fed his pet birds, which appear to have succeeded in his affections the stately wolf-hounds that followed at his heels in the days when he sat to Titian ; or he sauntered among his trees and flowers ; or sometimes, but more rarely, he strolled into the forest with his gun, and shot a few of the wood-pigeons which peopled the great chestnut-trees. Next came vespers, and then supper, a meal very much like the dinner, consisting frequently of pickled salmon and other unwholesome dishes, which made Quixada's loyal heart quake within him.'

Philip II., although frequently implored by his sister to return to Spain, continued in Flanders, saying that his presence was of greater importance near the seat of war, and that, so long as their father lived and would assist her with his counsel, she would find no difficulty in conducting the internal affairs of Castile. In truth, Philip's filial affection and reverence shine like a grain of fine gold in the base metal of his character : his father was the one wise and strong man who crossed his path whom he never suspected, undervalued, or ill used. The sum Charles reserved to himself was one-sixteenth part of the rents of the crown ; this was estimated at twelve thousand ducats, or about fifteen hundred pounds sterling, a provision scarcely amounting to the half of that which his will directed to be made for his natural son, Don John. This money was always promptly paid. Charles had also thirty thousand ducats lying at his disposal in the fortress of Simancas. In spite of the untold wealth of Spain, the crown was in constant distress for money. That financial ruin which was completed by Olivarez had begun in the days of Granvelle. By means of bills of exchange obtained at usurious rates from the bankers of Genoa, the colonial revenue was forestalled two years before it was collected ; and the bars and ingots of Mexico and Peru may be said to have been eaten up by courtiers and soldiers, fired away in cannon, and chantied away by friars, before they had been dug from the caverns of Sierra Madre or washed from the gravel of Yauricocha.

In March, an envoy came from Philip to the Emperor, desiring to know his father's opinion on the policy of taking Don Carlos to Flanders to receive the oath of allegiance as heir-apparent of Burgundy. Charles considered that the fitful and passionate temperament rendered it unsafe as yet to produce Don Carlos to the world. Meantime, news came that the King of Portugal had consented that the Infanta Mary

should visit her mother in Spain. But the external affairs of the kingdom required at this time counsel of the greatest sagacity, and action of the greatest promptitude and courage. War was raging on the frontier of the Netherlands, and it was threatened on the frontier of Navarre. Italy also presented grave causes of anxiety, and the Grand Turk was attacking his Most Catholic brother by sea and land. Flanders, however, appeared to be the point upon which it was advisable that the strength of the crown should be concentrated. Ruy Gomez de Silva was to raise eight thousand Castilians for the army of the Duke of Savoy, and to raise money the Church had to lend its aid.

In June, John III. of Portugal died ; the gallant Don Luis, his brother, was also dead, and it became now a question who should be the guardian of the baby heir. First-cousin to Charles V., John was also the brother of Charles's wife, the husband of Charles's sister, and father-in-law of two of Charles's children, yet the plans and policy of one court were studiously kept secret from the other. The Emperor sent condolences to his sister, the widowed Queen Catherine, and, though he said nothing, he was very desirous that Juana, the princess-regent, should be appointed to the Portuguese regency ; and she too was most anxious to have the guardianship of her son, Don Sebastian. But the regency was given into the hands of Catherine, the queen-dowager, who closed her able administration with the brilliant defense of Mazagaon against the Moors. The reins then passed to the feeble hands of the Cardinal Henry, nor was the princess-regent of Spain, Juana, ever permitted to hold any share of power or even to embrace her son.

For disappointments in Portugal the Emperor was consoled by glorious news from Flanders. The Duke of Savoy, reinforced, held Coligny blockaded in St. Quentin. The Constable de Montmorency, who commanded the main French army, was ordered by the King of France to throw some troops into the place. Emanuel Philibert allowed him to do it with but little opposition, and then seized the opportunity of passing the river with his full force, and by a succession of skillful manœuvres succeeded in surprising Montmorency, and compelling him to give battle, when Count Egmont, at the head of seven thousand cavalry, obtained in one brilliant charge the most complete victory ever won by the lions and castles of Spain from the lilies of France. When this intelligence reached the Emperor, he ordered the messenger to be rewarded with a gold chain and a handsome sum of money ; a solemn mass was celebrated in the convent-church in token of thanksgiving, and considerable alms from the imperial purse were

given to the neighboring poor. The Emperor afterwards was much disappointed to learn that his son had not been present in the field, and bestowed his malediction on the English troops, for whom Philip was reported to have been waiting in the rear. Charles then counted the days, as Quixada wrote, which must elapse before Philip could be at the gates of Paris.

The triumph of the Duke of Savoy in the Netherlands had a singular effect upon the war in Italy. Alva was gaining the advantage, and, happily for art and its monuments, the panic of the King of France, the baseness of the King of Spain, and the supple treachery of Christ's vicar, saved Rome from being sacked. Guise and his army were instantly recalled ; Alva was instructed that his master valued his great victory chiefly because it might restore him to the good graces of the Pope ; and the holy father himself made haste to sacrifice his friend and Pope ; and the terms obtained were no less disgraceful to Paul and Philip than advantageous to the Roman See. The Pope was bound not to take part against Spain during the war, and not to assist the Duke of Guise with provisions or protection. Philip, on his side, engaged to restore all the places he had taken from the Pope, and to do homage for the crown of Naples ; and, while he claimed an amnesty for the papal rebels, he permitted the pontiff to except from it Marc Antonio Colonna and the chief Roman magnates who had been the most active of Alva's allies, and whose fortunes were best worth the acceptance of the plundering Caraffas.

The Emperor had ever regarded Paul's policy with indignation, which had lately become mingled with scorn. He forbade the bulls of excommunication, which were frantically fulminated against his son, to be published in the churches, and declared them contraband in the sea-ports of Spain. Had the matter been left in the Emperor's hands, Paul would have been dealt with in the stern fashion which brought Clement to his senses : Alva would have been directed to advance, Rome would have been stormed, the pontiff made prisoner, and the Primate of Spain and the Prior of Yuste would have been directed to put their altars into mourning and to say masses for the speedy deliverance of the holy father of the faithful. This treaty was almost the sole affair of importance transacted during the Emperor's sojourn at Yuste without his opinion having been first asked and his approval obtained. At length there came a detailed account of the negotiations, which the secretary of state said had given satisfaction both at Rome and Valladolid. At each paragraph that was read, the Emperor's anger grew fiercer ; and before the paper had been gone

through, he would hear no more. He was laid up next day with an attack of gout, and for weeks after was overheard muttering to himself broken sentences of displeasure. Unfavorable reports of Don Carlos reached him from time to time, adding to his disappointments. It seemed, indeed, that the prowess of Duke Charles and Kaiser Max, which had dwindled wofully in his son Philip, bade fair to be altogether extinct in the next generation.

During the whole of the year 1557 the Emperor's health gave him but little annoyance, and cost Dr. Mathys but little trouble or anxiety. In spite of generally eating too much, Charles slept well, and his gout made itself felt only in occasional twinges, so effectually did the senna-wine, prepared by the doctor, counteract the syrup of quinces which he drank at breakfast, the Rhine wine which washed down his mid-day meal, and the beer which, though denounced by the doctor, was the habitual beverage of the patient whenever he was thirsty.

The Emperor gave much of his leisure time to his garden. He had ever been a lover of nature and a cherisher of birds and flowers. The story is told that in one of his campaigns, a swallow having built her nest and hatched her young upon his tent, he would not allow his tent to be struck when the army resumed its march, but left it standing for the sake of the mother and her brood. From Tunis he is said not only to have brought the best of his laurels, but the pretty flower called the Indian pink, sending it from the African shore to his gardens in Spain, whence in time it won its way into every cottage-garden in Europe. Yuste was a very paradise for these simple tastes and harmless pleasures. The Emperor spent part of the summer in embellishing the ground immediately below his windows ; he raised a terrace, on which he placed a fountain and laid out a parterre ; and beneath it he formed a second parterre, planted, like the first, with flowers and orange-trees. Among his poultry were some Indian fowls, sent him by the Bishop of Plasencia. Of two fish-ponds which he caused to be formed with the water of the adjacent brook, he stored one with trout and the other with tench. In the autumn he sent for an additional gamekeeper to kill game for his table, and in winter for a new stove for his apartments ; and he also received from Flanders a large box of tapestry, among which was a set of hangings wrought with scenes from his campaigns at Tunis, which still exists in the palace at Madrid. He also contemplated an addition to his little palace, and he had made several drawings with his own hands of an intended oratory, and a new wing for the accommodation of the king his son, who was to visit him as soon as public affairs permitted him to return to Spain.

In September the Queens-dowager of France and Hungary visited their brother. Queen Eleanor was in very feeble health; but Queen Mary was still robust enough for the saddle; she delighted in the exercise of her limbs and tongue, and was therefore frequently on horseback, riding from the castle of Xarandilla through the fading forest to the retreat of her brother. The chief business of Yuste at this time was the long-talked-of meeting between Queen Eleanor and the Infanta of Portugal. To see this daughter once more was the sole wish of the poor mother's heart. The daughter, on the other hand, seemed hardly less anxious to avoid the interview. The Emperor wrote to his niece, and also sent Father Borja on a secret mission to Portugal, in regard to the regency of that country. The hot weather and the speed with which Borja traveled threw him into a fever. Queen Catherine, the Cardinal Henry, and the Infanta Mary all vied with one another in nursing him; but he did not succeed in the object of his mission, and returned, saying, as he restored the papers to the Emperor, "You may be sure that no one but myself has seen them." The confidence thus reposed by the shrewdest of princes in Borja's judgment and observation shows how keenly the things of earth may be scanned by eyes which seem wholly fixed upon heaven.

The year 1558 did not open auspiciously at Yuste. The Emperor was not in his usual health, and still remained unreconciled to the shameful peace with the Pope. Philip's procrastinating policy gave the French time to rally; and Guise, burning to wipe away his disgraces in the Abruzzi and the Roman plains, suddenly appeared before Calais on the first night of the new year. The only approaches by land were guarded by the forts of Risbank and Newnham Bridge. These Guise attacked at night, and was master of in the morning. The roar of his artillery was heard at Dover; but a storm dispersed the squadron that put out with relief. After some days of desultory and desperate fighting, Lord Wentworth struck his flag; the English troops filed off under a guard of Scottish archers; and the key of France, which, two centuries before, had resisted for eleven months Edward III., fresh from Crecy, was restored in one week to the House of Valois. The honor of having first conceived and planned the enterprise belonged to the Admiral Coligny, still a prisoner of war in the hands of Emanuel Philibert of Savoy. Guise had nobly retrieved his laurels; and it would have been sufficient for his military glory had he been victor only in his two sieges,—the heroic defense of Metz and the dashing capture of Calais. France was in an uproar of exultation; and long and loud were the paeans of the Parisian wits. The news of the loss

of Calais was received at Valladolid and Yuste with little less sorrow and alarm than in London. The word Calais, which Mary Tudor dolefully declared to be written on her heart, was also ever on the tongue of her kinsman Charles.

Early in January the queens went to meet the Infanta Mary at Badajoz, where, during a visit of twenty days, the mother and aunt exhausted all their arguments and caresses in the attempt to induce her to settle in Spain. Queen Eleanor gave her jewels to the value of fifty thousand ducats, and Queen Mary added a quantity of rich dresses and household plenishing. But her heart was sealed against the land of which she hoped to be queen, and therefore she remained inflexible in her determination to return to Portugal. Hardly had the queens accomplished three leagues of their journey when Eleanor fell ill. Dr. Cornelio, who was in attendance, was much alarmed, and intelligence of her danger was immediately sent off to the Infanta and to Yuste. Quixada was ordered instantly to ride post to Talavera. He arrived only in time to receive her last request. "Tell my brother the Emperor that he must take care of my daughter, the Infanta." Her remains were deposited at Merida, and afterwards carried to the Escorial. Her daughter became her universal legatee, which made her one of the best matches in Europe. On the death of the English queen, Philip the Prudent once more turned his thoughts to his forsaken love, and for a brief moment the Portuguese Infanta was again destined for the Spanish throne. A successful rival, however, in the shape of peace with France, and a young, lovely, and well-dowered daughter of Valois, dashed the hopes of the Infanta. Fate had marked Mary of Avis for single blessedness; and her grand-nephew, Don Sebastian, eventually became her heir. Queen Mary was overcome with grief at Eleanor's loss. The Emperor, on receiving the news, likewise wept bitterly, and displayed an emotion which he rarely felt, and still more rarely permitted to be seen. For Eleanor, although her happiness never was allowed to stand in the way of his policy, had ever been his favorite sister. "There were but fifteen months," he said, "between us in age, and in less than that time I shall be with her once more,"—a prophecy which was exactly fulfilled. The Queen of Hungary arrived on the 3d of March, and on this occasion was lodged for some nights in the convent. Coming next morning to visit her brother, he was much affected on seeing Mary enter his room alone; and he afterwards said to Quixada that until then he had not felt the reality of Queen Eleanor's death. Observing the effect she had produced, Queen Mary avoided it in future by going attended by Quixada, or Avila, or by the

Bishop of Palencia. She took leave of the Emperor on the 15th of March. Some months afterwards she sent some illuminated choir-books to the monks at Yuste, as an offering to their church and a memorial of her visit to the convent; for Mary shared her brother's tastes, and was both a collector and a lover of works of art.

It was Father Borja who was sent by the princess-regent, when her grandmother, Queen Joanna, lay dying at Tordesillas, to administer the last consolations of religion, and who began to acquire a reputation for miraculous powers, because the poor, crazy old woman gave some feeble sign of returning reason as she came face to face with death. The Emperor now wrote to the princess-regent that, as soon as the body of his mother, the late Queen Joanna, should be considered sufficiently dry, it was to be transferred with proper state from Tordesillas to Granada, and there laid beside her husband, Philip the Handsome, in the magnificent tomb of white marble wrought by the delicate chisel of Vigarny in the chapel-royal of the cathedral.

The year 1558 is memorable in the history of Spain. In that year was decided the question whether she was to join the intellectual movement of the North, or lag behind in the old paths of mediæval faith; whether she was to be guided by the printing-press, or to hold fast by her manuscript missals. It was in that year that she felt the first distinct shock of the great moral earthquake, out of which had come Luther and Protestantism, out of which were to come the Thirty Years' War, the English commonwealth, French revolutions, and modern republics. The effect was visible and palpable, yet transient as that produced by the great Lisbon earthquake on the distant waters of Loch Lomond. For some weeks a church-in-danger panic pervaded the court at Valladolid and the cloister of Yuste; and it was feared that, while the Most Catholic King was bringing back his realm of England to the true fold, Castile herself might go astray into the howling wilderness of heresy and schism. Spanish pens had been busy in translations of the Scriptures; commentaries, glossaries, dialogues, and other treatises of questionable orthodoxy followed in rapid succession. Had time been given for the new spirit of inquiry to shape itself into some definite form, it would doubtless have modified the character of Spanish religion; although it is scarcely probable that it would have led the children of the South, with their warm blood and tendency to sensuous symbolism, into that progressive speculation into which reform conducted the people of the North. But inquiry demands time; and, the Church being too wise to trifle with so deadly a foe, it was strangled in the cradle by the iron gripe of the inquisitor.

The inquisitor-general, Archbishop Valdes, received a brief from Pope Paul IV., who could not resist the temptation of insulting Philip II., conferring upon the Inquisition the power of deposing from their dignities heretics of whatever degree, were they bishops, archbishops, cardinals, dukes, kings, or emperors.

Charles wrote to the princess-regent and his son to take all the means in their power "to cut out the root of the evil with rigor and rude handling." Early in July the Emperor was alarmed by hearing of the illness of the princess-regent, who was attacked by a fever, which prevented her from attending to business for a few days.

Among the last public measures which Juana brought under the notice of her father was a scheme for changing the seat of government. She was in favor of a change, as she considered Valladolid neither healthy nor conveniently situated. Many members of the council of state were, however, opposed to it, "but you know," wrote the Infanta, "how these gentlemen prefer their ease and good lodging before all things." Madrid appeared to her the fittest place; but she also mentioned the names of Toledo, Burgos, and Guadalaxara. The plan was not executed until some years after the return of Philip to Spain.

Father Borja paid another visit to the Emperor about this time, and answered many devout questions. Narrating the course of his penances and prayers, Charles asked him whether he could sleep in his clothes; "for I must confess," added he, contritely, "that my infirmities, which prevent me from doing many things of the kind that I would gladly do, render this penance impossible in my case." Borja eluded the question by an answer no less modest than dexterous. "Your majesty," said he, "cannot sleep in your clothes because you have watched so many nights in your mail. Let us thank God that you have done better service by keeping those vigils in arms than many a cloistered monk who sleeps in his shirt of hair."

During the second week in August the physician became seriously alarmed about the state of his patient; and the Emperor's thoughts seemed to turn more than usual upon religion and its rites. One day he asked Regla whether it would not be good for his soul, as a penance, to perform his own funeral. The monk said that it certainly would; pious works done during life being far more efficacious than leaving money for masses after death. Preparations were therefore set on foot at once, and on the following day, the 30th of August, as the monkish historian relates, this celebrated service was actually performed. "The pious monarch himself was there, attired in sable weeds, and bearing a taper, to see himself interred and to celebrate his own obsequies."

Many years before, self-interment had been practiced by the Bishop of Liege, Cardinal Erard de la Marck, Charles's ambassador to the diet during his election to the imperial throne; an example which may perhaps have led to the ceremonies at Yuste. For several years before his death, in 1528, did this prelate annually rehearse his obsequies, and follow his coffin to the stately tomb which he had reared in his cathedral at Liege.

It was on the 31st of August that Charles was seized with fever, and the next day no great change took place in his condition; but Quixada kept couriers and horses in readiness along the road to insure dispatch in the communications between Valladolid and Yuste. The evening of the following day he rallied sufficiently to confess and receive the eucharist. The princess-regent was full of grief and anxious to visit her father, but he would not consent to it. A few days after, on the arrival of dispatches, Charles was well enough to hear some of them read, and expressed the greatest satisfaction at learning that his sister, the Queen of Hungary, had accepted the government of the Netherlands. Letters from his daughter and his sister Mary were continually sent, expressing their wishes to go to Yuste. On the 16th, a courier from Lisbon with letters from the queen arrived. Catherine was aware of the dangerous state of her brother, and she had given great alms for the benefit of his soul, and had ordered masses said for him in every church in the kingdom. On September 19, the Emperor received extreme unction; and during the evening the preacher Villalva read aloud, at his request, passages from Scripture,—usually from the Psalms. The psalm which he liked best was that beginning, "Lord, thou hast been our refuge." The next day he had a confidential conversation with Quixada; and afterwards asked for the eucharist. Regla told him that, after having received extreme unction, that sacrament was no longer necessary. "It may not be necessary," said the dying man, "but it is good company on so long a journey." The patient received it with great devoutness from the hands of his confessor, and, in spite of his extreme weakness, followed all the responses as usual, and repeated with much fervor the whole verse, "Into thy hands, O Lord, I commend my spirit; thou hast redeemed us, O Lord God of truth." On the 21st of September, Bartolomé de Carranza, the Archbishop of Toledo, arrived; Villalva was preaching to the dying man, when he interposed, saying, "The time is come: bring me the candles and the crucifix." These were cherished relics, which he had long kept in reserve for this supreme hour. The one was a taper from Our Lady's shrine at Montserrat; the other, a crucifix of beautiful workmanship, which had

been taken from the dead hand of his wife at Toledo, and which afterwards comforted the last moments of his son at the Escorial. He received them eagerly from the archbishop, and, taking one in each hand, for some moments he silently contemplated the figure of the Saviour, and then clasped it to his bosom. Those who stood nearest his bed now heard him say quickly, as if replying to a call, "Now, Lord, I go." As his strength failed, his fingers relaxed their hold of the crucifix, which the primate therefore took, and held up before him. A few moments of death-wrestle between soul and body followed; after which, with his eyes fixed on the cross, and with a voice loud enough to be heard outside the room, he cried, "*Ay Jesus!*" and expired. The clock had just struck two. Quixada said he had died as devoutly as the Queen of France, and in a manner worthy of the "greatest man that ever had lived, or ever would live, in the world."

The church of Yuste was merely a temporary resting-place of the imperial dead. The Emperor, in his will, had confided the care of his bones to his son, expressing a wish, however, to be laid beside his wife and parents in the cathedral of Granada, in the splendid chapel-royal, rich with the tombs and trophies of Ferdinand and Isabella. Philip, however, shivering in the rear of St. Quentin, had already vowed to St. Lawrence the great monastery which it was his after-delight to make the chief monument of the power and the piety of the House of Hapsburg. At the Escorial, therefore, he united the bones of his father and mother, and placed them, on the 4th of February, 1574, in a vault in front of the high altar, beneath the jasper shrine which yet contains their fine effigies in emblazoned mantles, and wrought in bronze by Leoni. "Thou, of the Children of Charles the Fifth," says the inscription, "Who Shalt Surpass the Glory of His Actions, Take this Place: Let the Rest Reverently Forbear."

Some historians have contrasted Charles with his more showy and perhaps more amiable rival, Francis I., making the two monarchs the impersonations of opposite qualities and ideas,—the Emperor, of state craft and cunning; the King, of soldiership and gallantry. Francis was, no doubt, oftener seen in glittering armor and adorning the pageants of royalty and war; but Charles was oftener in the trench and in the field, scenes for which alone he cared to don his battered mail and shabby accoutrements. His journey across France in order to repress the revolt of Ghent was a finer example of daring, of a great danger deliberately braved for a great purpose, than is to be found in the story of the gay champion of the "Field of the Cloth of Gold." In the council-chamber he was ready to measure

minds with all comers; with the Northern envoy who claimed liberty of conscience for the Protestant princes; with the magnifico who excused the perfidies of Venice; or the still subtler priest, who stood forth in red stockings to glaze in defense of the iniquities of the Holy See. In the prosecution of his plans, Charles shrank from no labor of mind or fatigue of body. Where other sovereigns would have sent an ambassador and opened a negotiation, he paid a visit and concluded a treaty. From Groningen to Otranto, from Vienna to Cadiz, no unjust steward of the House of Austria could be sure that his misdeeds would escape detection on the spot from the keen, cold eye of the indefatigable Emperor. The name of Charles is connected not only with the wars and politics, but also with the peaceful arts of his time. It is linked with the graver of Vico, the chisel of Leoni, the pencil of Titian, and the lyre of Ariosto; and, as a lover and patron of art, his fame stood as high at Venice and Nuremberg as at Antwerp and Toledo.

At Valladolid, funeral honors were performed for the Emperor, in the presence of the princess-regent and her court, in the beautiful church of the royal Benedictines. Francisco Borja preached from the text, "Lo! then would I wander afar off, and remain in the wilderness." Among other edifying reminiscences of his friend, Borja told his hearers that he had it from the lips of the deceased that never, since he was one-and-twenty years old, had he failed to set apart some portion of each day for inward prayer. Solemn services were also performed in all the convents of the order of St. Jerome. But Brussels excelled all the cities of the Austrian dominions in the splendor with which she did honor to the Emperor's memory. The ceremonies took place on the 29th and 30th of December. The procession, in which walked Philip II., robed and hooded like a friar, and attended by the Dukes of Brunswick and Savoy, and a host of the nobility of Spain, Germany, and the Netherlands, was two hours in passing from the palace to the church of St. Gudule. Its principal feature was a great galley, placed on a cunningly-devised ocean, which answered the double purpose of supporting some islands emblematic of the Indies, and of concealing the power which rolled the huge structure along. Faith, Hope, and Charity were the crew of this enchanted bark; and her sides were hung with twelve paintings of Charles's principal exploits, which were further set forth in golden letter-press upon the sails of black satin. A long line of horses followed, each led by two gentlemen, and bearing on the housings the blazon of the states of the Emperor. They were led up the aisle of the church, past the altar,

and past the stalls of the Golden Fleece. As the last horse, covered with a black footcloth, went by, the Count of Bossu, one of the knights, the early playmate and dear friend of the Emperor, threw himself on his knees, and remained for some time prostrate in an agony of grief. Funeral honors were also performed in most of the foreign capitals, and those at Lisbon and Rome were peculiarly splendid. They were celebrated in several places in France, after peace had been concluded between the crowns; and even the Protestant Elizabeth caused a solemn dirge and mass of requiem to be sung for the Emperor's soul in her abbey of Westminster, on the 24th of December, 1558, just eleven days after Queen Mary's funeral had been celebrated there. It was computed that throughout Europe his obsequies were performed in upwards of three thousand churches, at a cost of six millions of ducats.

Queen Mary of Hungary did not live to complete her preparations for returning to the Netherlands. In July she had had a slight attack of smallpox; but early in August she was sufficiently recovered to propose to accompany her niece in her visit to Yuste. Perhaps her active mind and frame, filled with an energy which astonished the slow officials at Valladolid, after a life spent in stormy councils and rapid marches, sank under the fatigues of her enforced leisure. She died five weeks after the death of her brother. Sixteen years afterwards, her remains, with those of her sister Eleanor, were carried to the Escorial. Their bronze effigies, royally robed, kneel behind those of Charles and his Empress, with clasped hands and prayerful faces, turned to the magnificent high altar.

The princess-regent, Juana, Princess of Brazil, relieved of her regency by the arrival of the king, her brother Philip, and still disappointed in her hopes of obtaining the regency of Portugal, brought her brief secular career to a close at the age of twenty-three. Returning to Madrid, she there founded a nunnery, selecting her first bare-footed recluses, by the advice of Father Borja, from the Franciscan convent of Santa Clara, at Gandia. Here Donna Juana devoted herself for the remainder of her days to religious exercises, not assuming the veil, yet becoming every year more strict in her self-imposed rule of life. Her favorite relaxation was to take the air at the country palace of the Pardo, attended by a band of musicians; but even this harmless pleasure she soon abandoned as sinful. She died, after a short illness, at the Escorial, in 1573, five years before her son, Don Sebastian, was slain in battle by the Moors of Barbary. Her sister Mary, widow of Emperor Maximilian II., came to Madrid in 1580, and took

up her abode in the convent of Our Lady of Consolation, where her daughter, the Archduchess Margaret, took the veil, and lived for fifty years a burning and a shining light among the devout virgins of Castile.

Quixada wrote to Philip, "For myself, I will not be importunate with your majesty, but only ask you to remember that I have served your father, to the best of my power, for thirty-seven years, and that I will serve you to my life's end." Philip had an early occasion to observe the fidelity and tact with which the old soldier could fulfill a trust and keep a secret in regard to Don John. When Philip returned to Spain, in 1559, he appointed Quixada to bring Don John to meet him while he was hunting near the neighboring convent of San Pedro. Quixada assembled his vassals, and rode forth with his charge, whom he had been careful to have educated according to his quality in life, having first made the secret of his birth known to Donna Magdalena and asked pardon for having so long withheld it from her. They met the king in the wild rocky glen in the chase of Torozos, and were graciously received, Philip, who had come thither under pretext of hunting, remarking that he had never captured game which had given him so much pleasure. They afterwards followed the court to Madrid, where Quixada had an opportunity of once more signalizing his devotion to his master's son, by rescuing him from a fire, which burnt down their house in the night. When Don John was sent, in 1569, to command against the Moriscoes, whom Christian oppression and bad faith had driven to revolt in the Alpuxarras, the old mayor-domo went with him as a military tutor, and in the engagement was shot through the shoulder, and fell by the side of his pupil, from whose helmet a ball glanced as he covered the retreat of the party who bore the wounded veteran from his last field. Carried to Canilles, Quixada died there, in February, 1570, in the arms of his wife, who had hastened from Madrid to nurse him. Don John mourned for him as for a father, and buried him, with military honors, in the church of the Jerome friars, at Baza, whence his bones were afterwards removed to Villagarcia.

When the good Donna Magdalena left the Christian camp, Don John rode for some miles beside her litter, and embraced her, tenderly when they parted. During the rest of the campaign, amidst the fatigues and anxieties of command, he seized every opportunity of writing to her; and one of his hurried letters from the field, recurring to their mutual loss, concludes with these affectionate words: "Luis died as became him, fighting for the glory and safety of his son, and

covered with immortal honor. Whatever I am, whatever I shall be, I owe to him, by whom I was formed, or rather begotten, in a nobler birth. Dear, sorrowing, widowed mother! I only am left to you, and to you indeed do I of right belong, for whose sake Luis died, and you have been stricken with this woe. Moderate your grief with your wonted wisdom. Would that I were with you now, to dry your tears, or mingle them with mine! Farewell, dearest and most honored mother! and pray God to send back your son from these wars to your bosom." We may be sure Magdalena's oratory was the scene of many such prayers. For her darling young prince she busied herself in occupations of a more practical and secular kind; and the hero of Lepanto wore no linen but what was fashioned by her loving hands. The filial affection with which he always regarded her is one of the most pleasing features in his wayward character and checkered history; he never came back to Spain without paying her a visit, or went to the wars without bidding her farewell. When she was founding her college at Villagarcia, in 1576, he wrote to the Pope's secretary for the necessary licenses, enforcing his request with these words: "There is nothing I so much desire as to gratify the wish of this lady, whom I regard as my own mother." In 1577, as he took leave of her, on going to govern the Netherlands, she was seized with a presentiment of evil, and instituted daily masses for his health. Her forebodings were just; for within two years, into which had been compressed an age of toil, anxiety, and mortification, he lay on his death-bed at Namur, raving, in his delirium, of battle-fields, and leaving, as his last message to the brother who was suspected of repaying his loyal service with poison, the request that his bones might be laid near the dust of his sire at the Escorial. Donna Magdalena's chief tie to the world was now broken. Religion had then no rival in the widow's heart; and her days were passed in doing good, after the fashion prescribed by her Jesuit counselors. Her life of kindly deeds and blameless enthusiasm came to an end in 1598, when she was laid beside her lord in the collegiate church of Villagarcia.

Father Borja continued to preach, teach, and travel with unflagging zeal and remarkable success, and on the death of Laynez, in 1567, received the staff of Loyola. During his vigorous rule of seven years the company of Jesuits lengthened its cords and strengthened its stakes in every part of the globe and in every order and condition of mankind. Jesuit politicians gained the ear of princes and prelates who had hitherto regarded the society with coldness or enmity; Jesuit scholars and thinkers, no less elegant than profound, spoke through the press in

every language in Europe; Jesuit colleges, presided over by teachers the ablest that the world had yet seen, arose amid the snows of Poland and the forests of Peru; Barbary, Florida, and Brazil were watered with the blood of Jesuit martyrs; and Jesuit ministers of mercy moved amid the roar of battle on the bastions of Malta and the decks of Lepanto. Never was discipline so perfect as in the ranks of the company; never were the minds of many so skillfully combined into a single intellectual machine, developing the powers of all, yet moved by the will of one. Like Ignatius, Borja brought to his religious command much of his old military spirit; and his addresses to his followers were frequently illustrated by images such as might have presented themselves to Gonsalvo or Alva. "Let the preacher," says he, in his excellent rules for the composition and delivery of a sermon, "think himself a mere piece of artillery, with which God is to batter and overthrow the proud walls of Babylon, and his own part of the business nothing but the lump of iron or brass, cold and heavy, and the dirty powder, black and of ill savor, and of none effect until it is touched with the fire of the Holy Spirit." His sermons and his treatises, collected after his death, fill a folio of goodly dimensions. This general of the Society of Jesus visited Spain for the last time in 1571. From the moment when he stepped ashore at Barcelona, his progress was a perpetual triumph. His son Fernando received him with autograph letters of welcome from Philip and Cardinal Espinosa; his former subjects, the turbulent Catalonians, flocked in crowds to crave his blessing; at Valencia, his eldest son met him at the gates with the flower of the Valencian nobility; and at Madrid he held an Infant of Spain at the baptismal font. In Portugal, the usual honors awaited him; the young King Sebastian imploring his benediction, and the Cardinal-Infant Henry busying himself about the repair of his travel-worn wardrobe. In France, Charles the Ninth, forsaking for a day the chase of Chambord, led the gallant cavalcade which met the Jesuit father beyond the walls of Blois; and Catherine de Medici, seating the stranger at her side, begged for his rosary as a relic, and reverently listened to his exhortations to the extinction of heresy and heretics,—exhortations which she so signally obeyed, a few months later, on the night of St. Bartholomew. During his progress from court to court and from castle to castle, Borja led the rigid life of a mendicant friar, fasting at royal banquets, and sleeping at night on the floors of tapestryed chambers. He died in 1572, and the Jesuits and the House of Borja soon discovered that their dead chief, a saint among grandees, was likewise a grandee among saints. Pleading his merits and the

miracles performed by his relics, his grandson, the Cardinal-Duke of Lerma, applied, in 1615, to Pope Paul V. for his canonization; and, his claim being examined and the devil's advocate heard with all the grave impartiality of the Church, a brief of beatification was issued, in 1624, by Pope Urban VIII.

The grand inquisitor was Fernando de Valdes, Archbishop of Seville. Munificent to the Church, and mean to all the rest of the world, profligate, selfish, and bigoted, with some refinement of taste and much dignity of manner, he was a fair specimen of the great ecclesiastic of the sixteenth century. In spite of his seventy-four years, his abilities and energies were unimpaired, while his selfishness and bigotry were daily becoming more intense. The splendid mitre of St. Isidore was the sixth that had pressed his brows; for, beginning his episcopal career in the little Catalonian see of Helena, he had intrigued his way not only to the throne of Seville, but to the chair of grand inquisitor. He left, as the principal memorials of his name as archbishop, the weathercock Faith on the beautiful belfry of his cathedral of Seville; and as grand inquisitor, two thousand four hundred death-warrants in the archives of the Holy Office!

FERDINAND I. FERDINAND DER ERSTE. A.D. 1556-1564.

"*Fiat justitia, pereat mundus.*" (Let justice be done, though the world perish.)

FERDINAND I., brother of Charles V., assumed the government from the time his brother resigned in his favor, but was not formally acknowledged by the body of electoral princes till the beginning of the year 1558, at Frankfort, where he swore to the stipulated terms of his election, and the Arch-Chancellor of the Empire, the Elector Joachim of Brandenburg, placed on his head the imperial crown, which, together with the sceptre, had been brought from Brussels, at Charles's desire, by the imperial deputation, headed by William the Silent, Prince of Orange.

Ferdinand was King of Hungary and Bohemia, and Archduke of Austria, before his brother Charles procured his election as Emperor, in 1531. He had married, in 1521, Anna, daughter of Ladislas VI., King of Bohemia and Hungary. When her brother Louis, who had married Mary, sister of Charles V., fell in battle with the Turks, in 1526, leaving no children, Ferdinand claimed the crown in right of his wife. This involved him in a long and bloody struggle with John Zapolya, who laid claim to Hungary, and who was supported by the



FERNAND I.

man wanted but few qualities to make him a great prince, but many to make him a good one. In 1566 he took possession of the island of Scio, and ended his life, August 30 of the same year, at the siege of Sigeth, in Hungary, in the seventy-sixth year of his age, and four days before the taking of the fortress by the Turks.

When Ferdinand entered upon his duties as Emperor, the concessions he made excited the fiery Pope Paul IV., and he refused to

turned the property which his father had taken from individuals, and selected governors and other officers from persons who possessed property and were honest. "I intend," said he, "that they should resemble the rivers which fertilize the countries through which they flow, not the streams which break down all they meet." When one of his generals sent him word that his orders to build a bridge over the Drave could not be executed, Solyman sent him a linen cord, with this answer, "The Sultan, thy master, commands thee, without consideration of the difficulties, to complete the bridge over the Drave; if thou dost it not, on his arrival he will have thee strangled with this cord, which announces to thee his supreme will." Soly-

acknowledge him. His successor, Pius IV., was more complaisant; but the electors resolved that for the future the consent of the Pope in the election of an Emperor should not be asked, and that resolve has been adhered to ever since. Ferdinand made several attempts to reconcile the Protestants and Catholics, and urged on the Council of Trent, though fruitlessly, the reformation of abuses. He caused his ambassadors at the council to argue with great zeal in favor of certain propositions, from which he anticipated the most happy results. The special points were the service of the Holy Communion under both forms, and the marriage of priests, the sanction of which depended, as he said, only upon the indulgence of the Church. The ambassadors of France and Bavaria were also of his opinion; and those of Bavaria concluded their arguments thus: "We can assure this assembly, with the most sincere and conscientious feeling, that nothing could or would prove more serviceable and beneficial at the present moment towards reconciling the minds of Christians with each other, terminating the disputes of religion, preserving our own party in their faith, and restoring to it those who may have deserted from it, than the accordance of these legitimate and Christian demands of the Emperor's ambassadors." But an equitable and charitable judgment was not to be expected from an assembly of men who were conversant with only one side of the question. And this is confirmed by the reports made to the Emperor by his ambassadors, among whom were four bishops. "We now behold quite clearly," they wrote, "and the facts stare us in the face, although we can scarcely bring ourselves to acknowledge it without real pain and mortification, that nothing can be effected here without having recourse to intrigue. The Spaniards will not swerve an inch from the instructions of their king; while the Italians watch with eager eye the slightest signification made by the Pope and his cardinals. The bishops from the other countries, who perhaps are best aware of the present state of things, comprise the minority, and consequently can do nothing, because the majority of voices decides all things. On our side, we have only had the Bishop of Louvain, who attends in the name of the Archbishop of Salzburg, and a few days since he was joined by the Grand Vicar of Eichstadt. On the other hand, the Italian archbishops and bishops continue to arrive in troops, especially such as are high-born and wealthy. All are, however, dependent upon the nod of the Pope's legate, Simonetta; while it is generally known that a few good and pious bishops, who spoke warmly in favor of a reform in the Church, have, in consequence, been marked down in Rome in the condemned list. If, therefore, no end be put to

these secret machinations and human passions, truly we know not what good can be expected from this quarter."

Such complaints were repeatedly made, and this last effort of the Emperor Ferdinand to restore the peace of Christendom by a searching investigation of ecclesiastical affairs, made under the sanction of the Church, completely failed. Meantime, however, the Council of Trent, besides a great number of dogmatical decisions, promulgated some excellent principles upon Christian morals, which operate even to this day as rules in the Roman Catholic Church. The council closed its sitting on the 9th of December, 1563; and shortly afterwards Ferdinand died, on the 15th of July, 1564, in the sixty-second year of his age. The convincing testimony in his favor recorded by history is, that during the difficult period when hatred and violence so often decided opinions, he carried with him to his grave the glory of being praised as an excellent monarch by all parties, Catholics as well as Protestants.

Ferdinand lost the German countries of Livonia, Courland, and Esthland, which were conquered in 1564 by the Czar Ivan IV., surnamed the Cruel. Ferdinand was the last Emperor crowned at Aix-la-Chapelle. He was buried at Prague. His wife was Anna, sister and heiress of Louis II., King of Hungary and Bohemia.

CONTEMPORARIES OF FERDINAND I.

Elizabeth succeeded her sister Mary on the throne of England in 1558. She is considered the most distinguished in the annals of female royalty, and the brilliant success of her government, during a long reign, surrounded her maiden diadem with a blaze of glory which has rendered her the most popular of the monarchs of England. She was an accomplished Latin scholar, understood Greek, and spoke French, Italian, and Flemish with the same facility as her native tongue. But she bestowed more of her time and attention on history than on anything else. She was indefatigable in the pursuit of this queenly branch of knowledge, to which she devoted three hours a day.

One of the first acts of her reign was to send assurances to the Kings of Denmark and Sweden and the Protestant princes of Germany of her attachment to the reformed faith. In 1560 she restored the English currency to sterling value,—a thing which neither Edward VI. nor Mary durst attempt. This mighty and beneficial change was effected by the enlightened policy of Elizabeth without causing the slightest inconvenience or distress to individuals. Her queenly talents were shown in the acuteness of her perceptive powers and the unerring

discrimination with which she selected her ministers and great law officers, and, in some instances, converted those into loyal servants who might have turned their abilities to her annoyance. The improvement of manufactures, and the establishment of crafts, which gave employment and prosperity to the great body of her people, were always leading objects with Elizabeth, and to those ends her progresses, as her journeys through her dominions were called, conducted. Her policy was one of peace and economy. When she came to the throne, the nation was at war with France and Scotland, and one of her first acts was to secure peace upon favorable terms; and no war was undertaken in her reign for territorial conquest. To strengthen her own throne, she succored the Protestants in Scotland and France and in the Low Countries.

Henry II. of France was like his father, Francis I., in disposition, but inferior in talent. He reigned from 1547 to 1559. In a league with the Protestant princes of Germany he gained many victories over Charles V. and his son Philip II., and recovered Calais from the English, who had held it for more than two centuries.

Catherine de Medici, grand-niece of Pope Leo X., and only daughter of Lorenzo de Medici, was born at Florence in 1519. In 1533 she was married to the young Duke of Orleans, afterwards Henry II., and her uncle, Pope Clement VII., conducted her to Marseilles, where the ceremony was performed, and presented her on the occasion with a dower of three hundred thousand crowns. This queen is equally celebrated for her talents and for her crimes. Beautiful as were the ladies at the court of France, Catherine outshone them all, not only by the loveliness of her features and the dazzling whiteness of her complexion, but also by the elegance of her movements, her form being exceedingly majestic, though not tall. She politically avoided all appearance of ambition in a court already occupied by the two rivals, Diana of Poitiers, the favorite of her husband, and the Duchess d'Etampes, favorite of Francis I., with both of whom she contrived to live in the greatest harmony. She also displayed great tenderness for Francis I., who, gratified by the amiable manners and agreeable conversation of his daughter-in-law, frequently remarked that she was made to command. Henry II., who was killed by the Count of Montgomery at a tournament in honor of the marriage of his daughter Elizabeth with Philip II. of Spain, left the regency to his widow. They had ten children, three of whom were successively kings of France. Catherine's first act of power was to dismiss her rival, towards whom it was no longer necessary for her to assume the

appearance of friendship. The kingdom was torn by strong factions of the princes of the blood, the Guises and the Montmorencies, between whom she unceasingly created divisions, always attaching herself to the stronger party, which she invariably confounded in the end by her intrigues. By these means, she was three times regent of France, under Francis II., Charles IX., and Henry III. before his return from Poland. During the short reign of her eldest son, her power wavered; for the king had married Mary Stuart, niece of the Guises, who were rendered all-powerful in France in consequence of the affection of Francis II. for his wife. The minority of Charles IX. caused a new regency, to obtain which Catherine offered, as the price of that power, their lives and liberty to the Prince of Condé and the King of Navarre. Those princes agreed to her proposals, and her government was proclaimed by the states assembled at Orleans. In 1562 the King of Navarre again revolted, in which he was joined by all the Calvinists; and the queen, to strengthen herself, conferred the government of Normandy on the Sire of Matignon, and gave one of her daughters to the Duke of Savoy, restoring to him at the same time several places of which he had been deprived by the treaty of Château-Cambresis. The King of Navarre was killed at the siege of Rouen; and Marshal Saint-André, who perished in the battle of Dreux, ruined the hopes of Protestants. The last obstacle to the regent's peaceable enjoyment of power was the Duke de Guise, who was assassinated at Orleans, by Poltrot, in 1563. Catherine, on learning this news, shed tears of joy, and at once dismissed the virtuous L'Hôpital, whose probity was a restraint to her. Although forty-three years of age, she still possessed great beauty, of which it is asserted that she made political use. Having no religious faith, she patronized astrologers, and believed in ghosts and spirits. To these faults and weaknesses she joined some great qualities: she intrepidly assisted at the siege of Rouen, in 1562, by encouraging the soldiers in the midst of the fight, heedless of the balls and bullets which flew around her; she afterwards took possession of Hâvre de Grace, which was occupied by the English, and made a negotiation with Elizabeth of England, by which that powerful queen evacuated the coasts of Normandy, which had been ceded to her by the Protestants during the civil war. At this time all Europe was governed by women, —England, by Elizabeth; Scotland, by Mary Stuart; Portugal, by the Infanta Mary, daughter of Eleanor; Navarre, by Queen Jane; the Low Countries, by Margaret of Parma; Spain, by Isabella (Elizabeth) of France; and France, by Catherine de Medici. Wishing to deprive the Prince de Condé of his post of lieutenant-general of the kingdom,

the queen-regent offered to divide the government with her son, Charles IX., then fourteen years of age, and had her project declared by the parliament of Rouen. The irritated Condé again revolted, and attempted to seize the king and the queen-mother at Meaux, in 1566; but the defeat of the Protestants at Saint-Denis, by the Constable Montmorenci, strengthened her power and gave her the leisure to form and the means to carry out her projects of vengeance. At Bayonne, consequently, she resolved, in concert with the Pope's agents and Philip of Spain, assisted by the Duke of Alva, to attempt the destruction of the Protestants, and was frequently accompanied in her interviews by the young King of Navarre, to whom she was particularly attached. This prince, who all his life watched over the interests of France, fully understood the nature of these plots, and informed his mother, who warned the Prince de Condé and Admiral Coligny; in consequence of which the massacres were postponed. This youth was afterwards Henry the Great.

Francis II. came to the throne in 1559, and reigned less than eighteen months, during which time the jealousies of the Guises and Montmorencies, and violent religious dissensions, created great miseries in the kingdom.

Mary Stuart, wife of Francis II., was allied to the Houses of Bourbon and Medici. She was the niece of Henry VIII. of England, and daughter of James V. of Scotland and of Mary de Lorraine-Guise. She was married to the dauphin in 1558. He became king in 1559, and died in 1560. After his death, Mary would gladly have remained in France; but the politic and suspicious Catherine de Medici opposed her wishes, and she went to Scotland in 1561.

In 1564, Mary sent Elizabeth of England a superb diamond, accompanied by a letter written in Latin, in which both these queens were well versed. Mary encouraged the Catholics in England; Elizabeth excited the Protestant faction in Scotland; and thus religious differences produced dissensions between these two queens. Mary, instead of contracting an alliance with a prince who could have sustained and protected her against the ambition and jealousy of Elizabeth, married, in 1565, her cousin, Henry Stuart, Lord Darnley, a young man nineteen years of age, grandson of Henry VIII., and, like Mary, a Catholic and aspirant to the throne of England.

Charles IX., brother of Francis, succeeded to the throne in 1560, and was governed by his mother, Catherine de Medici.

Ulrich Zwingli, or *Zwinglius*, the Swiss Reformer, lived to fix the Reformation on a firm basis in his native land. In general, he agreed

in opinion with the German reformers. In 1531 a war broke out between Zurich on the one side and the Catholic cantons on the other, and Zwingli was commanded to take the field, bearing the banner of the canton, which it was usual for an ecclesiastic to support. A battle ensued in October, but the enemy were more than twice as strong as the Zurichers, who were defeated, and Zwingli was among the slain. His place was filled in Switzerland by *John Calvin*, the second great Reformer, who established himself in Geneva in 1541. His *five points* were, *predestination, particular redemption, total depravity, irresistible grace, and the certain perseverance of the saints*. Calvin established the most rigid rules in Geneva, and all who differed from him in doctrine were persecuted or banished from that city. It seemed that blind and fanatical zeal actuated the Reformers as well as the Catholics, and surely there could be no more convincing argument in favor of *total depravity* than the bitter hatred and persecution with which they treated each other. Calvin died in 1564, while *John Knox*, a fierce Christian among a fierce people, in the severity of his deportment, the impetuosity of his temper, and his zealous intolerance, was bearing everything down before him in Scotland. Alas that Christian people did "not know what manner of spirit they were of," when they were so ready to "command fire to come down from heaven to consume those who differed from them!"

And now let us look at the countries in which the reformed religion, as shaped by Calvin, obtained a fixed and permanent residence. Among the German princes, Frederic III., Elector Palatine, in the year 1560, substituted followers of *Calvin's* doctrines in place of the Lutheran teachers whom he removed, and ordered his subjects to receive the rites and opinions of the Genevans. His successor, Louis, in the year 1576, rescinded the acts of his father and restored the Lutheran doctrine to its former dignity and authority. The Palatinate became noted for its revolutions in religion. Within the space of sixty years the doctrines of Luther had been twice adopted and twice relinquished for Calvinism by its rulers. Calvinistic teachers were given to the Elector Frederic IV. when only nine years old, and they were ordered, if necessary, to drive the Lutheran heresy out of the soul of their pupil with blows. Frederic III. caused Zacharias Ursinus, professor of theology at Heidelberg, to draw up a catechism, called the Heidelberg Catechism, which was published in 1563. The first among the French who abandoned the Roman Catholic religion were called Lutherans by the writers of those times. The vicinity, however, of Geneva, Lausanne, and other cities which embraced the Calvinistic

system of doctrines and discipline, and the astonishing zeal of Calvin, Farel, Beza, and others, in fostering, encouraging, and multiplying the opposers of the Romish See in France, induced them all, before the middle of the century arrived, to profess themselves the friends and brethren of the Genevans. By their enemies they were called contemptuously Huguenots. The Scotch Church honors John Knox, a disciple of Calvin, as its founder; and from him it received from its commencement the doctrines, institutions, and government of the Genevans. England, however, never could be persuaded to submit entirely to the decisions of Geneva; nor did it long retain unaltered what it did receive from that quarter. The Englishmen who first renounced the superstitions of their fathers were more inclined to the opinions of Luther respecting the Eucharist, the mode of public worship, and the government of the Church, than to those of the Swiss. After the death of Henry VIII., his son, Edward VI., established a liturgy, and those who celebrated the public worship according to this liturgy were called *Conformists*; those who preferred the Swiss mode of worship were denominated *Non-Conformists*, or *Puritans*, because they desired greater purity in worship, and did not regard the liturgy as free from all the dregs of superstition. Queen Elizabeth did not confine the Reformation to the rigorous principles of the Genevans and their followers the Puritans, but she enjoined on those to whom this business was intrusted to follow the pattern of the early ages rather than that of the Genevans.

In the provinces of the Netherlands, the *Belgic Confession* was published in 1571, giving the preference to the Swiss mode of worship; nevertheless, to avoid incurring odium, the Belgian Reformers styled themselves *Associates of the Augsburg Confession*; because the Spanish court looked upon Lutherans as far better citizens than the disciples of Calvin, who, from their commotions in France, were deemed more inclined to sedition. In Saxony, Poland, and Hungary there were Lutherans, Calvinists, and the Bohemian brethren, or Moravians, who were the descendants of the better sort of Hussites. Lutheranism also prevailed in Denmark and Sweden. This latter country had revolted under Christian II., whose cruelty forever dissolved the bonds between Denmark and Sweden, and the Union of Calmar was irreparably broken by the Swedes, who recovered their ancient independence. Young Gustavus Ericson Vasa escaped from his prison in Denmark, and was welcomed to Stockholm, where the words "Savior and Deliverer" greeted him from every quarter. Gustavus Vasa reigned in peace for many years, and was the founder of the House of Vasa.

We will now turn to another famous contemporary of the Emperor Ferdinand I.,—his nephew, *Philip II. of Spain*. When Philip succeeded to the government of the Netherlands, or Flanders, as it was then usually called, it comprehended seventeen provinces, which formed anciently so many separate states, each under the rule of its respective prince. In their institutions they bore much resemblance to each other. No tax could be imposed without the consent of an assembly, consisting of the clergy, the nobles, and the representatives of the town. The condition of the commons in the Netherlands during the Middle Ages was far in advance of what it was in most other European countries at the same period. For this they were indebted to the peculiar circumstances which formed their character. Occupying a soil which had been redeemed with infinite toil and perseverance from the waters, their lives were passed in a continual struggle with the elements. They were early familiarized to the dangers of the ocean. The Flemish mariner was distinguished for the intrepid spirit with which he pushed his voyages into distant and unknown seas. An extended commerce opened to him a wide range of observation and experience; and to the bold and hardy character of the Netherlander was added a spirit of enterprise, with such enlarged and liberal views as fitted him for taking part in the great concerns of the community. Being peopled by different races, speaking different languages, tended to maintain the distinct individuality of the provinces.

Even after they were all brought under the sceptre of Burgundy, in the fifteenth century, it was found impossible to fuse them into one nation. Charles V., with all his power and personal influence, found himself unequal to the task, and was obliged to content himself with the position of head of a confederacy of republics. When Charles tried to introduce the Inquisition into the Netherlands, it had to be done in a modified form. Antwerp and Brabant refused it altogether, because of the numerous Protestants who had gone to live in those cities on account of trade. There is no more sure way of rousing a commercial people than touching their pockets, and Charles did not care to press matters to extremities. He was too politic a prince, too large a gainer by the prosperity of his people, willingly to put it in peril, even for conscience' sake. In this lay the difference between him and Philip.

After the death of Charles, Philip prepared to return to Spain; but it was necessary first to provide a suitable person to whom the reins of government might be intrusted. There was Emanuel Philibert, Duke of Savoy, who had held the post of regent, but who was now to return

to his own dominions, which had been restored to him by the treaty of Château-Cambresis. There was Lamoral, Count Egmont, the hero of St. Quentin and Gravelines; there was Christine, Philip's cousin, who had shown her talent for political affairs by the part she had taken in effecting the arrangements of the treaty of Château-Cambresis; and there was the Prince of Orange. But Philip had no mind to confide the regency of the country to any of its powerful nobles.

The individual on whom the king at length decided to bestow this mark of his confidence was his half-sister, Margaret, Duchess of Parma,—the natural daughter of Charles V., born about four years before his marriage with Isabella of Portugal. Her mother was Margaret Vander Gheenst, of a noble Flemish house. Charles's aunt, Margaret of Austria and Duchess of Savoy, then Regent of the Netherlands, took charge of the infant, and on the death of that princess she was taken into the family of the Emperor's sister, Mary, Queen of Hungary, who succeeded in the regency. Margaret's birth, unlike that of Don John, did not long remain a secret; and she received an education suited to the high station she was to occupy in life. When only twelve years of age, the Emperor gave her in marriage to Alexander de Medici, Grand Duke of Tuscany, some fifteen years older than herself. The ill-fated connection did not last long, as, before twelve months had elapsed, it was terminated by the violent death of her husband. When she had reached the age of womanhood, her hand was bestowed, together with the duchies of Parma and Placentia as her dowry, on Ottavio Farnese, grandson of Pope Paul III. The bridegroom was only twelve years old.

In her demeanor and gait Margaret bore great resemblance to her aunt Mary, the regent. Like her, she was excessively fond of hunting, and followed the chase with an intrepidity that might have daunted the courage of the keenest sportsman. She had but little of the natural softness that belongs to the sex, but in her whole deportment was singularly masculine. As if to add to the illusion, nature had given her somewhat of a beard; and to crown the whole, the malady to which she was constitutionally subject was a disease to which women are but rarely liable,—the gout. But, though masculine in her appearance, she was not destitute of the kindlier qualities which are the glory of her sex. Her disposition was good, her understanding excellent, and her apprehension quick. She showed much versatility in accommodating herself to the exigencies of her position, as well as adroitness in the management of affairs, which she may have acquired in the school of Italian politics. Unlike her aunt Mary, who was

tolerant towards the Protestants, in religion she was as orthodox as Philip could desire. The famous Ignatius Loyola had been her confessor in her early days. Such was Margaret, Duchess of Parma, who now, in the thirty-eighth year of her age, was called at a most critical period to take the helm of the Netherlands. Early in June, 1559, Margaret, with her husband, arrived at Brussels, to be made regent, which was not distasteful to the people, for she was their country-woman, and her early days had been passed among them. Philip repaired to Ghent, the ancient capital, where the court was held with great rejoicing for three days, during which the king held a chapter of the Golden Fleece, memorable as the last chapter ever held in the Netherlands. When the States-General assembled, they openly complained of the Inquisition and the presence of a large body of foreign troops, which Philip had retained in the country under the pretext of a fear of invasion from France. "How is it," exclaimed the bold syndic of Ghent, "that we find foreign soldiers quartered on us, in open violation of our liberties? Are not our own troops able to protect us from invasion? Must we be ground to the dust by the exactions of these mercenaries in peace, after being burdened with the maintenance of them in war?" Unable or unwilling to conceal his displeasure at language he was so unprepared to hear, Philip descended from his throne and abruptly left the assembly. Yet the stout syndic was allowed to go unharmed, because Philip looked above him to a mark more worthy of his anger,—to the nobles, who had encouraged the spirit of resistance in the commons. William of Orange was not present, being at that time a hostage at the court of France for the fulfillment of the treaty of Château-Cambresis, and while there he learned that a secret treaty had been entered into with his master, the King of Spain, for the extirpation of heresy throughout their dominions. This inconsiderate avowal of Henry II. was made to William on the supposition that he was stanch in the Roman Catholic faith. But whatever William may have been at that time, he possessed one Christian virtue which belonged neither to Philip nor to Henry,—the spirit of toleration.

After settling the affairs of the regency, and appointing as assistants to Margaret the three councils which of old time had existed in the land,—the council of finance, for the administration of the revenues; the privy council, for affairs of justice and the internal concerns of the country; and the council of state, for matters relating to peace and war and the foreign policy of the nation, in which were several Flemish nobles, among them Count Egmont and the Prince of Orange,

—Philip appointed three more aids: Count Barlaimont, president of finance; Vigilius, president of the privy council; and the noted Granvelle, Bishop of Arras. These three composed the *Consulta*, with whom Margaret was to advise in the more important matters.

Before leaving the Netherlands, Philip named the governors of the several provinces, the nominations for the most part only confirming those already in office. Egmont had the government of Flanders and Artois; the Prince of Orange, that of Holland, Zealand, Utrecht, and West Friesland. Each of these nobles had also the command of a battalion,—a poor contrivance for reconciling the nation to the continuance of the detested Spanish troops in the country. Having completed all his arrangements, Philip took with him the little son of the Duchess of Parma, Alexander Farnese,—a name destined to become in later times so renowned in the Netherlands. The avowed purpose was to give the boy a training suited to his rank, under the eye of Philip; and nothing was said of holding him as a hostage for the fidelity of Margaret, and of her husband, whose dominions in Italy lay contiguous to those of Philip in that country.

In the port of Flushing lay a gallant fleet, waiting to take Philip to Spain. A curious scene is reported to have taken place as he was about to go on board. Turning abruptly to the Prince of Orange, who attended him with a large body of Flemish nobles, he bluntly accused him of being the true source of the opposition his measures had encountered in the States-General. William, astonished at the suddenness of the attack, replied that the opposition was to be regarded not as the act of an individual, but of the states. "No," replied the incensed monarch, shaking him violently by the wrist, "not the states, but you, you, you!" William did not think it prudent to reply, nor did he care to trust himself with the other Flemish lords on board the royal squadron. On the 20th of August, 1559, the fleet weighed anchor, and Philip was soon wafted from the shores to which he never was to return.

Philip had not been many days in Valladolid when his presence was celebrated by one of those exhibitions which, unhappily for Spain, may be called national. This was an *auto de fé*, not, however, as formerly, of Jews and Moors, but of Spanish Protestants. The example at Valladolid was soon followed by *autos de fé* in Granada, Toledo, Seville, Barcelona, in short, in the twelve capitals in which tribunals of the Holy Office were established.

MAXIMILIAN II., MAXIMILIAN DER ZWEITE. A.D. 1564-1576.

"Deus providebit." (God will provide.)



MAXIMILIEN II.

able to regulate in person all transactions with foreign powers."

His Bohemian subjects, when they recommended him to the Poles as their king, said, "Our Bohemia is far better under his government than if it were ruled even by a father born among us; our rights, our liberties, and our laws are protected by him; he allows everything to take its course without making any change; and what we justly regard as almost miraculous, is the generous impartiality and tolerance he shows towards all classes of believers, leading them to mutual love and harmony." And it is to be remembered that he displayed this spirit at a

IN 1560, Ferdinand I. proposed his eldest son, Maximilian, as his successor, at the assembly of electoral princes in Frankfort, and they acknowledged him as such. His father recommended him, saying, "Endowed with considerable intellectual powers, great address, mildness, and goodness of heart, he is likewise gifted with all the other princely virtues and good morals; possessing a disposition open to all that is truly just, good, and honorable, together with a sincere love for the Holy Empire of the German nation, the glory and prosperity of which it is his earnest desire to promote. He is master of the six principal languages usually spoken in Christendom, and is, consequently,

period when the word tolerance was hardly known; avowing publicly "that God alone could hold dominion over the conscience." Such was the admirable character of this Emperor, who, by his meritorious conduct, after the example of his good father, succeeded in establishing throughout Germany that tranquillity which it had not enjoyed since the religious divisions; a circumstance still more striking when it is remembered that, on account of religious differences, violent and sanguinary scenes were taking place in the Netherlands and France. He also made an attempt to effect a reconciliation in the Low Countries, by remonstrating with Philip II. against his proceedings in those unhappy dominions.

The last effort made to exercise the power of the *Fuistrecht* (law of the fist) was made by a Franconian knight, William of Grumbach, who, with the remnant of the horde formerly collected by Albert of Brandenburg, resumed operations, and made an attack on the territory of the Bishop of Würzburg, and actually shot that prelate in his own city. The ban of the empire was pronounced against him, and he fled to Gotha for refuge and aid from the son of the unfortunate Elector John Frederic. There, filling that young and weak-minded prince with hopes of reconquering the electorate of Saxony, he led the young duke to a fate far more distressing than that undergone by his father. The Elector Augustus, who had succeeded his brother Maurice in Saxony, marched with his army to execute the imperial ban, laid siege to Gotha, and forced both the duke and Grumbach to surrender. The young prince was carried prisoner to Vienna, led through the streets in an open cart as a show, amid the mockery and derision of the populace, and then taken to Styria, where he died after an imprisonment of twenty-eight years. Grumbach was executed at once by being torn into quarters by four horses, after having previously undergone the most dreadful torture. Another evil with which the Emperor had to contend were the troops of mercenary soldiers, who sold themselves to the highest bidder, having numerous depots for recruiting and mustering the men, and who, by marching continually to and fro through the land, created great irritation by their lawlessness and insolence. Maximilian made more stringent laws for the discipline of the army, and tried to prohibit the enlistment of troops in Germany by foreign princes; but it was feared that if this custom were abolished the warlike spirit of the empire would be annihilated at once, and that in the moment of danger no warriors would be at hand for the defense of the nation.

In 1575, the Emperor succeeded in having his son Rudolph elected

Emperor; and in the following year he died at Ratisbon, and was buried at Prague. His wife was Mary, daughter of the Emperor Charles V. He had three daughters and six sons. Rudolph, the eldest, succeeded him not only in the empire, but also in his hereditary estates of Austria. The Empress Mary, after the death of her husband, went to Spain, and ended her days in a cloister in Madrid. Her daughter, the Archduchess Margaret, went with her, and, as Sister Margaret of the Cross, was famous for nearly half a century among the vestals of Madrid. Maximilian's daughter Elizabeth married Charles IX. of France; and Anne married her uncle, Philip II. of Spain.

CONTEMPORARIES OF MAXIMILIAN II.

Elizabeth was still reigning in England, and Mary in Scotland. Mary, after the murder of her husband, Lord Darnley, married Bothwell, of some of her people reviving, in a few days she found herself at the head of six thousand men. With these she fought the insurgents at Langside, in 1568, but, being defeated, fled with a few attendants to England, hoping for protection from Elizabeth, who, instead of protecting her, ordered her to be put in confinement, yet treated her with all proper marks of respect.

One of the proudest days of Elizabeth's queenly life was in 1571, when she went to London to dine with that prince of English merchants, Sir Thomas Gresham, who had invited her to open the new Bourse, which he had built at his own expense for the benefit of his fellow-citizens. Elizabeth was so pleased with the display of every variety of merchandise, that she gave it the name of the Royal Exchange. Soon after, she created Sir William Cecil Lord Burleigh, and made him lord high treasurer; Burleigh, Leicester, Walsingham, and Nicholas Bacon, formed her cabinet. In 1573, she found means by economy to pay, with interest, not only her own debts, but those of her brother Edward and her sister Mary.

Charles IX. of France, whom we left under the government of his mother, Catherine de Medici, in 1570, married Elizabeth of Austria, daughter of the Emperor Maximilian II. The king and his mother met her at Mézières, the old fortress of which had been converted into an enchanting residence by the care and inventive genius of Catherine. Elizabeth entered Mézières in a carriage drawn by four white horses, decorated with rich housings, and in the same triumphant manner

she passed all through France, receiving pompous entertainment at every town, and in 1571 was crowned and made her solemn entry into Paris. At the period of their marriage Charles was twenty years of age, and Elizabeth sixteen. Educated by virtuous parents in principles of the most rigid morality, Elizabeth found herself isolated in the corrupt and infamous court of her husband and the queen-mother.

Catherine had been pursuing her sanguinary projects for some years, but could not, however, succeed in alluring either Condé or Coligny to Paris. In 1567, Catherine's redoubtable enemy, the Constable de Montmorenci, was killed; and in 1569 occurred the battles of Jarnac, in which Condé was slain, and of Moncontour, in which Catherine had the satisfaction of seeing her son Henry, though only sixteen, crush the Protestants without destroying their hopes, and, although there was much carnage, her resolution to subject them to a more complete massacre remained unshaken. Hitherto it had been difficult to attract a great number of Protestants to Paris; it was necessary to inspire them with confidence. She invited the Queen of Navarre and Admiral Coligny to the capital, but both had the prudence to refuse; she then sent Biron with a proposal of marriage between her own daughter, Margaret de Valois, and the Queen of Navarre's young son, Henry, Prince of Béarn. After some hesitation, this apparently frank and cordial offer was accepted, and they arrived at Blois, where they were welcomed by the king and the queen-mother.

The court assembled at Paris to make preparations for the marriage, but Jeanne d'Albret, Queen of Navarre, was so disgusted at the corrupt manners of the inmates of the royal dwelling that she was desirous of flying from it, but was prevented by her death, she having been poisoned by Catherine's perfumer! By her death Henry, Prince of Béarn, became King of Navarre. Neither this event, nor a thousand other secret indications, seemed to awaken the suspicions of the Protestants. The massacre of St. Bartholomew, which took place on the 24th of August, 1572, was arranged in the Tuileries by Catherine and the Dukes of Anjou, Nevers, and Angoulême. Admiral Coligny, the father-in-law of William, Prince of Orange, was to be the first victim, and the general massacre was to follow. All was determined with fearful secrecy: the barriers of Paris were locked and guarded, and the signal was to be the striking of the clock of St. Germain l'Auxerrois. Sad and anxious, Charles IX. waited in secret horror for the hour of the massacre. His mother, fearing his irresolution, passed the night beside him, reassured him, and prevented him from countermanding

his order; to hasten the performance of which she caused the tocsin to be sounded before the arrival of the hour.

Coligny's house was forced; the assassins rushed upon him regardless of his white hair, dispatched him with many blows, and threw his body out of the window; and then followed the screams of the dying and the shouts of the murderers. Catherine considered her daughter-in-law too virtuous to communicate her intrigues or plots to her; and Charles, who honored those qualities in his wife which he did not himself possess, so carefully concealed the events of the night that the young queen was ignorant of the murderous deeds until awakened by the noise. On learning the dreadful cause of the confusion, she hastily inquired if the king was aware of it; and when informed that Charles had ordered and assisted in the massacre, Elizabeth burst into tears, and, throwing herself on her knees, implored divine pity and forgiveness for the author of this dreadful crime.

None were spared; the streets and squares were strewn with the corpses of the old and young of both sexes, who had been assassinated in their beds and thrown from the windows. When morning arose to lighten the frightful scene, blood ran through the streets, and dyed the shores of the river. The King of Navarre's gentlemen were killed in the Louvre, and Charles, grown ferocious at the sight of blood, armed with a carbine, stood on the south balcony of the Louvre and fired on the Protestants who endeavored to swim across the Seine. It was originally intended that the King of Navarre and the young Prince of Condé should be included in the massacre, but Charles would not consent to sacrifice those of his own blood; and he also carefully protected his nurse, who was a Protestant.

The carnage lasted three days, and as many as sixty thousand fell victims to the bloodthirsty Catherine. She sent orders to all the provinces that all the Protestants in France might be exterminated. The governors who rejected this order with horror were De Tendy, Charny, Saint-Heran, Tannequy-le-Veneur, Gordes, Mandelot, and D'Orthes. An Italian cut off the head of Coligny, and offered it to Catherine, who, after attentively examining it for some time, ordered that sad trophy of her cruelty to be embalmed and sent to Pope Gregory XIII., who returned thanks publicly for the massacre.

Charles's health rapidly declined after this terrible massacre, nor were the sufferings of his mind less than those of his body; but he had one friend left, and that was his nurse. One day when she approached his bed and gently opened the curtains, he groaned and said, "Alas, what blood! what murder! Ah, I have followed wicked

counsel! O my God, forgive me! have mercy upon me!" When dying he repulsed his mother with horror, and fell into convulsions whenever she attempted to approach him. Catherine experienced little grief at the loss of this son, having always had a preference for the Duke of Anjou. Some chronicles state that Louis XIII. often repeated that Charles IX. was poisoned by Catherine de Medici. Charles died May 30, 1574, in the twenty-fourth year of his age.

The widowed Queen Elizabeth left France the following year, and proceeded to Vienna, the court of her brother Rudolph, Emperor of Germany; it was in that city that she founded the monastery of St. Clara, where she afterwards resided, forming, until her death, a model of all the virtues. Elizabeth possessed the provinces of Berri, Bourbon, Forez, and La Marche, which she governed wisely; and her revenues were devoted to acts of utility and charity. Her sister-in-law, Margaret de Valois, who was detained at the château d'Usson in a state of restriction bordering on indigence by the severity of her offended husband, Henry IV., owed many benefits to her generosity. Elizabeth was perseveringly asked in marriage by Philip II. of Spain, and her brother-in-law, Henry III. of France; but she refused a second marriage, and died, at the age of thirty-eight, in the convent of St. Clara, in Vienna, where she was buried in 1592.

Cardinal Granvelle, whom Philip II. left as minister under Margaret of Parma in the Netherlands, had been in the service of the Emperor Charles V., and drew up the conditions of peace when the Protestants were defeated at Mühlberg, and in doing so deceived the Landgrave of Hesse, who remained a prisoner, though he had been assured of his liberty. About the same time, he effected the capture of Constance by surprise. In 1550 he was made counselor of state, and had charge of the great seal. In 1552, when the Emperor, having been surprised by Maurice of Saxony in the Tyrol, fled from Innspruck, by night, in a litter, Granvelle accompanied him with lance in rest. The treaty of Passau, concluded soon after that event, certainly does honor to Granvelle. In 1553 he negotiated the marriage between Philip and Mary of England; and he was a party to the treaty of peace between France and Spain made at Château-Cambresis. But the post given him by Philip when he left the Netherlands brought upon him the hatred of the people, as all harsh and forcible measures were charged to him. The nobility, at the suggestion of Count Egmont, caused their servants to wear a uniform livery, on which was embroidered a fool's cap. All Brussels interpreted it as the cardinal's hat, and every appearance of such a servant excited their laughter.

This badge, which was offensive to the court, was afterwards changed into a bundle of arrows,—and this latter was probably the origin of the arms of the republic. At last the respect for the cardinal sank so low, that a caricature was publicly placed in his hands, in which he was represented seated on a heap of eggs, out of which bishops were crawling (an additional number of bishops had been created to secure the allegiance of the Belgians to the Pope). Over him hovered a devil, with this inscription issuing from his mouth: “This is my son: hear ye him!” Margaret at length prevailed upon Philip to remove him, in 1564. In 1570, Philip sent him to Rome, to conclude an alliance with the Pope and the Venetians against the Turks. These last threatened Naples, whither Granvelle was sent as viceroy, and where he made many excellent regulations for the internal welfare of the state; and Naples had reason to anticipate great advantages when, in 1575, he was recalled to the council of state. Philip, eager to have the credit of governing by himself, gave Granvelle merely the title of *President of the Supreme Council of Italy and Castile*, so that the cardinal was not in name, although in reality, prime minister.

When the inhabitants of the Netherlands, who had been accustomed to freedom, revolted against the tyranny of Spain, and especially against the hated Inquisition, the Duke of Alva's counsel was to suppress the insurrection forcibly and with rigor. Philip accordingly committed the matter to his hands, and sent him to the Netherlands, in 1567, with unlimited power and a large military force. His first step on arriving was to establish what was called the “Bloody Council,” in which he himself at first presided, and over which he afterwards appointed the sanguinary Juan de Vargas. This tribunal condemned all without distinction whose opinions appeared dubious, or whose wealth excited cupidity. The present and the absent, the living and the dead, were subjected alike to trial, and their property confiscated by the council. A number of Flemish merchants, mechanics, and weavers emigrated to England; above one hundred thousand abandoned their native country, and many others enlisted under the banners of the proscribed princes, Louis and William of Orange. Count Egmont, although entreated to leave by the Prince of Orange, wished to save his private property, thinking that his return to the court would insure his safety. When Alva entered Brussels, Egmont went to meet him, and sought to secure his favor by presents. He appeared to have gained his confidence, when suddenly, after a sitting of the council, he and Count Hoorn were treacherously seized and carried to the citadel of Ghent. The states of Brabant sought to withdraw Egmont from the jurisdiction

of the “Bloody Council,” and Egmont, as a knight of the Golden Fleece, denied its competency to try him. But all was in vain; he was held guilty of contumacy, and, along with Count Hoorn, condemned to death. June 4, 1568, they were both beheaded in the market-place of Brussels. The people, in a paroxysm of sympathy, dipped handkerchiefs in the blood that seemed shed in martyrdom to freedom. Egmont left eleven children, three of whom were sons. The whole of his large property was confiscated.

Alva afterwards defeated Prince Louis, and compelled William of Orange to retire into Germany; upon which he entered Brussels in the greatest triumph, in 1568. The Pope presented him with a consecrated hat and sword, as defender of the Catholic faith; an honor which, having been hitherto conferred only on crowned heads, increased his insolence to the highest degree. He caused a statue to be cast, in which he was represented as trampling under foot two human figures, representing the nobles and the people of the Netherlands; and this he set up in Antwerp. His executioners shed more blood than his soldiers; and none now withstood his arms except Holland and Zealand. But these provinces continually renewed their efforts against him, and succeeded in destroying the fleet which had been equipped by his orders. This disaster, and perhaps still more the apprehension that he might lose the king's favor, induced him to request that he might be recalled. Philip gladly acceded, as he perceived that the obstinacy of the rebels was only increased by these cruelties, and he was desirous of trying the effect of milder measures. Alva accordingly resigned the command of the troops to Don Luis de Requesens, in 1573, and left the country, in which, as he himself boasted, he had executed eighteen thousand men. The war which he had kindled burned for sixty-eight years, and cost Spain eight hundred million dollars, her finest troops, and the loss of seven of the richest provinces of the Netherlands.

It is related in old German chronicles of the sixteenth century, that Katharina von Schwarzburg once made the terrible Duke of Alva tremble. She was a German dame, belonging to a house which had been noted for its heroes from the earliest times, and which had given the Emperor Gunther to Germany.

In 1547, when the Emperor Charles V., after the victory of Mühlberg, was about to send some of his troops through Thuringia to the Netherlands, Katharina obtained from him a safeguard or warrant that her subjects and her property should be unmolested on the march of the Spanish troops through her territories. On her part, she was to

furnish bread, beer, and other provisions for a fair price at the bridge of Rudolstadt, over which the army was to pass. She took the precaution, however, to pull down the bridge near the city and build another at some distance from it, in order that her rapacious guests might not be led into temptation. At the same time she sent word to her subjects, who lived on the road the troops were to take, to bring all their treasures to the castle of Rudolstadt for safekeeping.

Meantime, the Duke of Alva, accompanied by Henry of Brunswick, and his sons, approached the castle, and sent forward a messenger, inviting himself and his generals to breakfast with the Countess von Schwarzburg. So modest a request from the head of a powerful army could not well be refused. "What the house afforded would be given," was the answer. "His Excellency would be welcome." At the same time she reminded him of the safeguard, and requested him to see that it was strictly enforced. A friendly reception and a well-filled table awaited the duke and his suite at the castle, and he complimented the Thuringian dame on her good kitchen, and praised her hospitality. But they had not been seated long at the table when a messenger of the countess called her out of the room and informed her that in many villages the Spaniards had robbed the inhabitants and driven off their cattle. Katharina was a mother to her people, and whatever concerned the poorest of her subjects touched her also. Extremely indignant at this breach of faith, yet without losing her self-possession, she ordered her servants to arm instantly, and bar the castle-gates. She then returned to her guests in the hall, informed them of the news she had just heard, and declaimed eloquently upon the disregard of the pledged word of the Emperor. She was answered, with a smile, that depredations were not unusual among soldiers passing through a country, and could not be prevented. "We shall see," replied Katharina, spiritedly. "My poor subjects must be indemnified, or, by God," she continued, in earnest, threatening tones, "princes' blood for oxen-blood!" With this explicit declaration she left the room, which in a moment was filled with armed men, who, with drawn swords, politely took their places behind the chairs of the guests seated at table. At this the Duke of Alva changed color, and the guests exchanged looks of astonishment. Cut off from the army, surrounded by stout warriors, they found themselves obliged to accept the terms offered by the offended dame. Henry of Brunswick was the first to recover his presence of mind, and, bursting into laughter, seized the only sensible way of getting out of the dilemma, by turning it off jocosely. Praising the countess for her motherly care of her people,

and the admirable courage she had shown, he begged her to feel no anxiety, pledging himself to answer for it that the Duke of Alva would make good the damage her people had sustained. As soon as the countess felt sure that reparation would be made, she gracefully and cordially thanked her guests, who took leave of her with the utmost courtesy, and immediately fulfilled the stipulations they had made.

RUDOLPH II., RUDOLPH DER ZWEITE. A.D. 1576-1612.

"Fulget Cæsaris astrum." (Caesar's star shines.)

RUDOLPH, King of Bohemia and Hungary, and Archduke of Austria, was elected and crowned at Ratisbon in 1575. He was in almost every respect the opposite of his father. He had spent his youth at the Spanish court, and been educated by the Jesuits. After the discovery of America, the commerce of the world had taken another direction, and the Netherlands, aspiring to independence, blockaded the Rhine, thus destroying the prosperity of the Rhenish towns; and the rising power of the English began to eclipse the trade of the Hanse towns. Rudolph, instead of occupying himself with the condition of commerce or the state of affairs in the empire, spent his time conversing with Tycho Brahe and Kepler about astronomy, or absorbed in astrology and alchemy.



RODOLPHE II.

His long reign affords a melancholy proof that in stirring and difficult times irresolution and indifference may produce as great evils as

can be effected under the government of a wicked ruler. The state of excitement on the subject of religion now resumed its former violence. The Catholic princes, advised by the Jesuits, began the task of reforming their own dominions by forcing their Protestant subjects either to resume their ancient faith or quit the country. According to the treaties which had been made in regard to religious differences, the other princes could not venture to reproach or condemn them for this procedure; yet at the same time the Protestants perceived but too clearly that they had made a violent attack upon their liberty of conscience, and given a proof of their hostile intentions towards them. France and the Netherlands presented a melancholy instance of the result to which such dissensions lead. The excitement caused by the proceedings of Alva spread throughout Germany, and on the frontiers most fearful scenes took place. The Spanish army, impelled by disease and want, entered Westphalia, and extended its devastation throughout the land.

In addition to this, a body of emigrants, with their Protestant minister, removed from the Netherlands to Aix-la-Chapelle, where their numbers increased so rapidly that they were emboldened to claim the same rights as those enjoyed by the Catholics. In Cologne, the Elector Gebhard fell in love with the beautiful Agnes of Mansfeld, canoness of Gerresheim, and in order to marry her turned Protestant,—her brothers insisting on this proceeding. The chapter of the cathedral and the corporation of Cologne immediately appealed to Rome and to the Emperor, and obtained from both the ban of excommunication against Gebhard. The chapter selected Prince Ernest of Bavaria as his successor; and by means of Bavarian and Spanish troops, he took immediate possession of the land. Gebhard first took refuge in the Netherlands, and subsequently removed to Strasburg, where he became dean of the chapter, and died in 1601. The Protestant princes quietly submitted to his deposition and expulsion, although the acquisition of a new vote in the electoral council would have been to them of vast consequence. The Lutheran princes were not disposed to aid him, because he was a Calvinist, and but one Calvinistic prince, John Casimir, Count Palatine, advanced with a few troops against Co'ogne; but the return of the Bavarian troops, and the lack of money to pay his men, very soon led to their dispersion.

John Casimir was a zealous partisan of his Church, and would hear nothing of the Lutheran doctrine, refusing its admission altogether into his territory. No part of Germany suffered so much from the melancholy effects of the hatred of the Protestant parties as the Palatinate.

The Elector Frederic III. had previous to his decease gone over to the Calvinists; and of his two sons, John adhered to his father's principles, while the elder, Louis, the elector, was so strong a Lutheran that he would not even allow the Calvinistic chaplain of his late father to pronounce the funeral oration over his remains. In accordance with this hostile feeling, he deprived the Calvinists of all their churches, and sent all their clergymen as well as teachers out of the country: their number amounting to more than two hundred. At the premature death of Louis, the guardianship of his son, Frederic IV., devolved upon John Casimir, and everything underwent an entire change; the Lutherans, in their turn, were treated as his brother had treated the Calvinists, and the young prince was strictly educated in the catechism of Calvin. Through such fanatic zeal, the Palatinate was forced to change its religion three times in the course of sixty years.

The old Church excused itself in proceeding as it did against the new one, since the latter showed so little tolerance towards its own disciples. The town of Donauwerth, which had been a free imperial town when it adopted Protestantism, brought upon itself the ban of the empire on account of its religious disputes, and in 1607 it fell into the hands of Duke Maximilian of Bavaria, who executed the sentence of excommunication pronounced against it. Austria itself was not free from the general disturbance. The Protestants were increasing in numbers in Vienna; and complaint after complaint reaching Rudolph, he deprived them of their churches and their rights of citizenship throughout all the towns of Austria. In Hungary there was great discontent, because the Emperor paid so little attention to the affairs of state, never even once visiting that kingdom, but permitting his German soldiers to commit every sort of insolence and violence without control. Sometimes occupied with Tycho Brahe and Kepler in the noble subject of astronomy, sometimes reading the stars with astrologers, or busied with alchemists in his laboratory, trying to manufacture gold, or collecting works of art, statuary, and paintings, for which he paid immense sums, Rudolph had neither the time nor the inclination to attend to anything else. This inactivity could not be regarded by his brothers and cousins with indifference, especially as he had no children. Accordingly, in 1606, they met and consulted together about what was best to be done for the welfare of their house, and finally drew up an agreement, according to which Matthias, the next eldest brother of the Emperor, was empowered to restore order forthwith both in Hungary and in Austria. Rudolph was at first much dissatisfied with this arrangement; but after a few years he yielded, and

voluntarily resigned to Matthias the upper and lower portions of the Austrian territory along the Enns, together with the kingdom of Hungary. Matthias succeeded in restoring peace in Hungary, and after the death of the Hungarian noble Stephen Botschkai, who, uniting with the Turks, had gained possession of a good part of the country, subjected it altogether to his authority.

Beyond his imperial dignity, Rudolph had nothing left but the kingdom of Bohemia; and the Bohemian Protestants gave him no peace until they obtained from him, in 1609, the free exercise of their religion, the establishment of their own consistory, the surrender of the University of Prague, and the right to build schools and churches in addition to those they already possessed. This important document, called the "Letter of Majesty," formed the first pretext for the "Thirty Years' War."

Such feelings of distrust and doubt now swayed religious parties in Germany, that the Elector Frederic of the Palatinate proposed, in 1608, an alliance among the Protestant princes, to which he gave the name of the "*Evangelical Union*"; and after great exertions he found himself joined only by the Margrave of Brandenburg, the Count Palatine, Philip Louis of Neuburg, the Duke of Würtemberg, the Margrave of Baden, and the cities of Strasburg, Nuremberg, and Ulm,—a very small number of states, but of great influence and wealth. The important acquisition, on account of their influence and wealth. The Elector of Brandenburg was not altogether unwilling to join the Union; but the Elector of Saxony was most decided in his refusal, saying, "That if the nature of the affair was seriously considered, it would be found, on the one hand, that the union was not at all necessary; and, on the other, its results would be nothing less than a dissolution of the whole empire." The Union was based upon the principle of mutual support in council and arms, and its especial object was to protect religion; the Palatine was to have direction of affairs during peace, and its term was to extend ten years.

In 1609, Duke John William of Juliers, who possessed the beautiful lands of the Lower Rhine, Juliers, Cleves, Berg, and Mark, died without leaving any children. He had four sisters, who were all married to German princes; so there were eight competitors for his inheritance, and Rudolph, regarding it as a vacant fief of the empire, made the ninth. The best right was on the side of Brandenburg and Neuburg, and, after disputing awhile, they agreed to govern conjointly. In vain did the Emperor prohibit the estates from doing homage to their new masters. The question was not so much who was or who was not to possess the duchy of Juliers, as which religious party, the Catho-

lics or the Protestants, was to be strengthened by so important an accession. Holland, England, and Henry IV. of France took sides with the Protestants. The Emperor sent his brother, the Archduke Leopold, Bishop of Passau, to take possession of the land as a vacant fief of the empire, but gained nothing more than the city and fortress of Juliers, where he was admitted by the governor; he, however, caused fresh bodies of soldiers to be raised in Alsace, and resolved to maintain the rights of the Emperor by force. This step of the House of Austria raised the ire of the Evangelical Union, whose members suddenly took up arms and marched throughout the seacoast of the Rhine, —Mayence, Treves, Cologne, Worms, Speyer, and others,—where, levying contributions, and exercising the greatest violence in every direction, they raised the most bitter feeling among the Catholics, and determined them likewise to form an alliance. The Bishop of Würzburg, in 1610, formed the "Catholic League," and bishops were its principal members. This was joined also by the princes of Bavaria,* and Duke Maximilian I. of Bavaria was placed at its head. The Emperor was offered no share in this confederacy. The League contended so far for Austria as it fought the Protestant princes, but Austria itself soon had cause to tremble before it. The arms of the Union had been tolerably successful in Juliers and Alsace, but no French army came to their aid on the Rhine,—the dagger of Ravaillac stopped them,—and the Union was forced to conclude a peace with the Archduke Leopold, Bishop of Strasburg and Passau. Both parties agreed to withdraw their troops from Alsace, exchange prisoners, and bury the past in oblivion.

Rudolph's remaining years were embittered by vexatious quarrels with his family. He was much dissatisfied with his brother Matthias, and Leopold was the only one of his relations for whom he had any affection. He felt, therefore, desirous of giving him his kingdom of Bohemia,—the last in his possession,—and in the year 1611 he empowered the archduke-bishop to march with his troops from Passau and enter Bohemia. The Bohemians, naturally imagining that these hostile proceedings were directed against their religion, flew to arms, made the Emperor a prisoner in his own castle of Prague, and summoned Matthias to their aid, who obeyed the call at once, entered Prague amidst the acclamations and rejoicings of the people, and, after a bitter and mortifying negotiation, forced Rudolph to yield him the crown of Bohemia.

* Maximilian I. succeeded his father, William V. the Pious, in 1597, as *Duke*, and in 1623 he became *Elector*.

It is said that during this time of trouble, and in the irritation of the moment, Rudolph burst open the windows of his room and exclaimed, in words fatally prophetic, "Prague, ungrateful Prague! through me you became elevated, and to-day you ungratefully desert and turn your back upon your benefactor! May you be pursued by the vengeance of God, and may His curse fall upon you and Bohemia!" He died at Prague, in 1612, aged sixty. He never married. The *Rudolphine Tables*, calculated by Kepler and Tycho Brahe, have rendered his reign an era in the annals of astronomy. Rudolph was buried in Prague.

CONTEMPORARIES OF THE EMPEROR RUDOLPH II.

England was still governed by Queen Elizabeth, and the country was in a flourishing condition. In 1577, pocket-watches were first brought from Germany to England. The globe was first circumnavigated by an Englishman—Sir Francis Drake—in 1580. In this year, also, the use of coaches was introduced into England by the Earl of Arundel. In 1586, plot after plot was formed by the Catholics to dethrone Elizabeth and place Mary, Queen of Scots, on the throne. At length Elizabeth's statesmen induced her to consent to Mary's execution, in 1587. It is said that if Elizabeth had been left to exercise her own unbiased judgment, her annals would have remained unsullied by the execution of Mary,—a crime which cannot be justified either on moral or on political grounds. In 1588, Philip II. of Spain, who was bent upon the destruction of England, fitted out the Invincible Armada, which consisted of one hundred and thirty ships. All the Protestant powers in Europe regarded this enterprise as the critical event which was to decide forever the fate of their religion. The Spanish admiral and vice-admiral both died before the armada was ready to leave Lisbon; and when it did leave, a violent storm met it on leaving the port, sinking some of the smaller ships, and forcing the others to go back and refit. When at length the armada appeared in the English Channel, the ships covered a space of seven miles in extent. Between thirty and forty small vessels were all the English could muster. Lord Howard of Effingham was the admiral, and Drake, Hawkins, and Frobisher served under him. In order to get the news more expeditiously, Elizabeth and Burleigh devised and published the first attempt at a government newspaper, called the "Armada Mercury." Howard sent fire-ships in among the enemy's vessels, upon which they separated, and the English captured twelve of them. The Spaniards then undertook to sail around England, and

Howard with his ships followed them. At Flamborough Head, the Spanish vessels were terribly shattered by a storm; seventeen of them were wrecked on the Western Isles, and the coast of Ireland; and only fifty-three of the whole armada reached Spain, in a miserable condition. Sir Walter Raleigh, under a patent from Elizabeth, planted two colonies on Roanoke Island; and the queen gave the name of Virginia to the country. Sir Philip Sydney lost his life in helping the Protestants in the Netherlands. Shakespeare lived in the time of Elizabeth. England now asserted its strength in turn, and became terrible to its invaders. Elizabeth died in 1603, at the age of seventy, after a reign of forty-five years, which had been one of the brightest periods in the history of England.

James VI. of Scotland and I. of England, son of Mary, Queen of Scots, came to the throne in 1603. In the very beginning of his reign the Gunpowder Plot was formed to blow up the parliament and the royal family, and thus bring the kingdom back to the Pope. James discovered it, and the conspirators were punished.

Henry III., King of France, another son of Catherine de Medici, was even more weak and frivolous than his brother, and abandoned all affairs to his mother and her favorites. The ambition of the Duke of Guise was so great that Henry, becoming afraid of him, determined to have him assassinated. Henry sent for him on pretense of having some affairs of importance to communicate. Henry had chosen nine of his guards for the purpose of killing the duke, and he put a poniard into the hands of each of them, ordering them to strike quickly. As the duke entered the king's antechamber, six poniards were plunged into his breast, so that his death was instantaneous. When this horrid deed was done, Henry went to his mother, and said, "Now I am a king again, for the Duke of Guise is dead." Catherine coolly replied, "We shall see what will come of it." The duke's fate was scarcely lamented; for he was a rebel to his sovereign, and had taken an active part in the massacre of St. Bartholomew, and even trampled on the dead body of Admiral de Coligny,* whom he ordered to be thrown out of the window after he was murdered. His brother, the Cardinal of Lorraine, a man as ambitious and haughty as himself, was also assassinated a few days afterwards.

* The first attempt at permanent colonization in the United States by the French was made by French Huguenots, under the patronage of Admiral de Coligny. Jean Ribault, in 1562, with a company of French emigrants, entered Port Royal Harbor, where he built a fort, named the country Carolina, and claimed it for Charles IX. of France.

In 1573, the Duke of Anjou was elected King of Poland. He was at Cracow when he heard of the death of his brother, Charles IX., and was so impatient to reach France that, without taking any measures for the government of his kingdom, he set off secretly in the night, and never stopped till he arrived in Paris. The Poles, finding that he did not return, chose another king.

When Henry found that the evils by which he had been surrounded were all owing to the intrigues of his mother, he forbade her to appear in the council, and loaded her with bitter reproaches. The rage to which Catherine gave vent in consequence brought on a violent fever, of which she died at Blois, in 1589, aged seventy. Her children, besides Francis II., Charles IX., and Henry III., were Louis, Victoria, and Jane, who died in their infancy; Elizabeth, wife of Philip II. of Spain; Francis, Duke of Alençon and Brabant; Claude, married to Charles II., Duke of Lorraine; and Margaret de Valois, first wife of Henry the Great.

The only thing that does honor to Catherine de Medici was her love for the arts. Besides the Tuileries and the Hôtel de Soissons, which she built at Paris, she erected the beautiful château de Chenonceaux, in Touraine; she also enriched the royal library of Paris with a great number of Greek and Latin manuscripts, and with a portion of the books which her great-grandfather, Lorenzo de Medici, purchased from the Turks after the taking of Constantinople.

The same year his mother died, Henry was stabbed by a monk named Jacques Clément. He sent at once for the King of Navarre, declared him his successor, and conjured him to renounce the Reformed religion. In Henry III. the House of Valois became extinct, having occupied the throne two hundred and sixty-one years. Henry's wife was the eldest daughter of Louis, Count de Vaudemont, Duke de Mercœur, of the House of Lorraine, and of Margaret d'Egmont. The ignorance of the age was such that the whole of the education of Louisa of Lorraine consisted in her acquaintance with the Lives of the Saints. The marriage was celebrated with great magnificence in the cathedral of Rheims in 1575. Henry was so captivated by Louisa's appearance in her royal robes that he passed the greater part of the day of her consecration in assisting at her toilet. At this epoch luxury made great innovations in the style of dress worn at court. Catherine de Medici had brought from Italy false hair, paint, patches, and perfumes. Henry himself covered his face with a cosmetic preparation at night, which in the morning was washed off. He declared he had never seen anything half so beautiful as his royal spouse; but her manners were cold

and reserved, and the novelty of her beautiful face soon wore off, and he neglected her. On receiving the news of Henry's assassination she fainted, and was for some days dangerously ill. When dying, Henry traced with a feeble hand these lines: "My dear, you have heard how badly wounded I have been; I hope it will be nothing; pray God for me; adieu, my dear." Louisa was in Touraine when she heard of her husband's death at St. Cloud. This catastrophe aroused a degree of energy in the heart of Louisa of which she had hitherto appeared incapable. She conceived a detestation for the League, and the fallacious principles which it advocated under the veil of religion. When the authority of Henry IV. was established, she entreated him and the parliament to punish her husband's murderers. Her latter days were devoted to pious foundations and pilgrimages. She died at the château of Moulins in 1601, and was buried in the convent of the Capuchins, at Paris, which Henry IV. built at her request. She had but one child, which died at its birth. The streets of Paris were first lighted by order of this queen, who established the custom of fixing the images of saints at the corners of the streets, in honor of which statues lamps were burnt near them throughout the night.

Henry IV., the first of the House of Bourbon, was frank and cheerful, brave and generous, active and sincere, and became the most popular monarch the French ever had. Seeing that it would restore peace to the contending factions in his country, he became a Catholic, but granted the Edict of Nantes for the protection of the Huguenots. He promoted arts and manufactures, founded the silk-trade at Lyons, and studied in all things the interests of his people. The Duke of Sully was his faithful friend and able minister. Henry came to the throne in 1589, and was assassinated by a crazy monk, named Ravaillac, in 1610. The great memoir-writers of his time were the Duke of Sully, De Thou, and Theodore d'Aubigné, half-brother of the king, and grandfather of Madame de Maintenon.

Margaret de Valois, first wife of Henry the Great, and daughter of Henry II. and Catherine de Medici, was celebrated for her beauty, talents, and vices. She was married to Henry in 1572; but, as their tempers were quite incompatible, and their marriage was entirely political, it was not long before their mutual indifference became mutual aversion. At length her conduct was such that she was committed to the fortress of Usson, where she was condemned to drag on a life of captivity, although only thirty-five years of age, and still beautiful. Certainly Margaret had had much to complain of in the infidelity of her husband, who was never without a favorite until the

day of his death. The most famous were the Countess de Guiche, known as *La belle Corisande*, Gabrielle d'Estrées, and Henrietta d'Entraigues, who was his very scourge. Margaret, after she consented to a divorce, left Usson, and appeared at the court of France in 1605, after a captivity of twenty years. She died at the Hôtel of the Faubourg St. Germain, in 1615, aged sixty-three, and was buried at the cathedral of Saint Denis.

Mary de Medici, second wife of Henry IV., was the daughter of Francis II., Grand Duke of Tuscany, and of Jane of Austria. She was twenty-six years of age when she was married to Henry, in 1600. Mary was tall and handsome; she had a kind and generous heart, and an intellectual and penetrating mind; but she had an inordinate share of vanity and an excessive degree of obstinacy. Her father gave her as her dower six hundred thousand crowns, and a quantity of superb diamonds and precious stones, and all the debts owed him by Henry IV. The king, who was an object of veneration to all Europe, and who had restored peace to France, could not find it in the bosom of his family; but it was his own fault. His numerous infidelities, and the queen's jealous and haughty temper, were the causes of his domestic dissensions. The dauphin, afterwards Louis XIII., was born in 1601, and gave great joy to Henry and the nation, as fifty-eight years had elapsed since the birth of a dauphin had occurred in France, the last having been Francis II.

Mary had never been crowned, and in 1610 she demanded that the ceremony should be performed. She appeared at this solemnity blazing with jewels, and Henry, who was gratified at beholding her in these rich ornaments, heightened her glory and vanity by declaring in his enthusiasm that he had never seen so handsome a woman as his queen. The ceremony was performed at Saint Denis by Cardinal Joyeuse, May 13, 1610; and the queen was to make her grand entry into Paris on the 15th. On the 14th, the king started for the arsenal in his coach, the curtains of which were drawn up, that he might see the preparations for the reception of his queen. At the crossing of a street his coach was stopped by a throng of vehicles passing in a different direction; and at that instant Ravaillac jumped on the wheel of the coach, and stabbed the king twice in the breast. The general joy was turned into universal mourning, and the voice of all France exclaimed, "We have lost our father." The courtiers at once assembled in haste to determine what should be done. The queen was declared regent. Mary dismissed Henry's faithful friend Sully, as well as Jeannin and Villeroi. The discarded ministers were replaced by Father Cotton,

the Pope's nuncio, and the ambassador of Spain, all of whom were suspected as accomplices in the death of the king, but who were nevertheless loaded with favors. The queen's friend and confidante, Leonora Galigaï, and her husband, Concini, obtained entire influence over her. Leonora being asked how she had obtained such influence,—“Have you not employed philters, magic, and supernatural means?” “None,” she replied, “but that ascendancy which strong minds possess over the weak.” While the husband regulated the affairs of state, the wife occupied herself with all concerns of a lucrative nature, and sold favors and privileges. Henry IV. left a flourishing kingdom; he had paid twenty-five millions of debts out of a revenue of thirty-five millions, and left thirty millions, the fruit of his economy, in the treasury; and the queen, after having dissipated this treasure, burdened the nation with taxes, and, placing France under the yoke of Spain, confirmed the general opinion that she was not a stranger to the conspiracy which had compassed the king's death.

William I., the Silent, Prince of Orange, was born in 1533, at the castle of Dillenburg, in Nassau. He was educated in the Roman Catholic faith by Mary, Queen of Hungary, sister of the Emperor Charles V., and spent nine years in attendance on the person of the Emperor, who had so high an esteem for the spirit, prudence, and intelligence of the prince that he asked his opinion respecting the most important matters, and when he was but twenty-two years old intrusted him with the chief command of the army in the Netherlands, in the absence of the Duke of Savoy. He also recommended him to his successor, Philip II., who, deceived by the calumnies of the Spaniards, regarded him, as we have seen, as the cause of the resistance he met with in the Netherlands. After Cardinal Granvelle was succeeded by the Duke of Alva, Count Egmont was the only one who advised his friends to trust to the grace and clemency of the king. “This grace,” replied the sagacious Orange, “will be our destruction, and Egmont the bridge by which the Spaniards will pass into the Netherlands, and which then they will destroy.” When Granvelle, after the execution of Egmont and Hoorn, asked whether Alva had taken the Silent One, meaning the Prince of Orange, and was told that he had not, he said, “If this fish is not caught, the duke's fishing is good for nothing.” Alva summoned William and other nobles to appear before the council of twelve; and when William refused to appear, he confiscated his property, and removed his son Philip William, then thirteen years of age, from the University of Louvain and sent him as a hostage to Spain. However, he was

eventually released, and died in 1618. William fought Alva successfully. Louis of Zuñiga and Requesens succeeded Alva in 1573, and the year following defeated Louis and Henry of Nassau, the brothers of the prince, who both fell on the field of battle. William raised the siege of Leyden by breaking down the dykes. Zuñiga soon after died; but the Spanish soldiers at Antwerp committed such outrages that all the provinces of the Low Countries, excepting Luxemburg, united at Ghent, in 1576, to expel the foreign troops and relieve themselves from religious restraint. Philip now appointed his natural brother, Don John of Austria, to succeed Requesens. Don John violated the privileges granted the states of Antwerp by the edict of 1577, and they called William of Orange to their aid; but, as several nobles were opposed to him, he proposed Matthias of Austria as stadholder, while he himself should have the rank of lieutenant-general. Don John dying suddenly, Alexander Farnese, Prince of Parma, son of Margaret, Duchess of Parma, was appointed by Philip to take command in the Netherlands. Alexander was a brave, able, and politic general, who knew how to win the favor of the Belgians, dissatisfied with the religious peace or the political equality of the two Churches, and converted to the Spanish interest the nobles, who were disaffected towards the Prince of Orange, and thus the effect of the victory at Gemblours, won by Don John, which had established the Spanish superiority in the Walloon provinces, was greatly strengthened. William then brought the seven northern provinces into closer connection, by the Union of Utrecht, in 1579, and thus laid the foundation of the republic of the United Netherlands. He then strove to enter into negotiations for peace at Cologne; but they were fruitless. The states, at the proposal of William, conferred the sovereignty on Francis, Duke of Alençon, brother of Henry III. of France, and renounced their allegiance to Philip of Spain as a tyrant. Philip had already declared the Prince of Orange outlawed, as "a heretic and false Christian, another Cain and Judas, a committer of sacrilege, a perjuror, an instigator of the disturbances in the Netherlands, and a real pest of human society," and had set a price of two hundred and fifty thousand dollars on his head. Whoever should deliver him, living or dead, into the hands of the Spaniards, was to receive a pardon for all crimes, and, with his posterity, be raised to the rank of nobility. The states in consequence gave him a body-guard, and the prince replied in a violent manifesto, in which he accused Philip of lust and murder, and of having been privy to the death of his son Don Carlos and of his wife Elizabeth. Meantime, the Duke of Parma, whose father had died, and to whose

title Alexander succeeded, was obliged to raise the siege of Cambray, when the Duke of Alençon advanced with an army. The French prince was hereupon proclaimed Duke of Brabant, in March, 1582, on which occasion the Prince of Orange presented him the ducal coronet and publicly administered the oath that he would reign agreeably to the compact. This event took place at Antwerp, where an attempt was soon after made to assassinate the prince. A Spaniard shot him under the right ear, and the ball passed out through his left cheek, destroying several of his teeth. The perpetrator was cut down on the spot by the guard. A Spaniard and an Italian were likewise apprehended for receiving money from the Duke of Parma to make way with the Duke of Alençon and William of Orange. Both were convicted: one was torn to pieces by four horses, in Paris, and the other put an end to his own life. The Duke of Alençon now began to aim at unlimited power; but his design of making himself master of Bruges and Antwerp was frustrated by the citizens, and he returned to France in 1583, where he died the same year. In 1584 the Prince of Orange was shot in his palace, at Delft, by a young Burgundian, named Balthazar Gerard, who had insinuated himself into his confidence. He was rising from table, when the assassin fired a pistol at him containing three balls. He fell, and died with the words, "My God! my God! Have pity on me and on thy poor people!" His murderer was not more than twenty-two years old. On his examination, he confessed that a Franciscan of Tournay and a Jesuit of Treves had persuaded him to commit the deed by the assurance that it would secure his eternal salvation. William was fifty-two years old, was well formed, had chestnut hair, and a brownish complexion. He spoke little, but what he said was judicious and pleasing. In the art of winning the good will of men he was a master. In his house, he was hospitable, a lover of splendor, and liberal of everything but his confidence. He was not anxious for his own exaltation, but for the interest of the people. The freedom, therefore, which he established did not perish with him, and his name has acquired a permanent place in the history of Europe. He was four times married. His son Maurice, who succeeded him in the office of stadholder, was one of the greatest captains of his age. His other son, Frederic Henry, grandson of Admiral de Coligny, succeeded Maurice, and died in 1647. William III., King of England, was Frederic's grandson.

Alexander Farnese, Prince of Parma, served his first campaign under his uncle, Don John of Austria, and distinguished himself at the battle of Lepanto. He afterwards followed his mother to the Low Countries,

and aided in obtaining the victory at Gembloix. He was made governor of the Spanish Netherlands after the death of Don John, and carried on the war against William of Orange. He won great fame in the siege and capture of Antwerp, in 1585. The ill success of the Spanish armada, and the part he was to take in the expedition against England, grieved him the more from the contrast it presented to his former successes. He was appointed commander-in-chief of the army, sent to the assistance of the Catholics in France, and compelled Henry IV. to raise the siege of Paris. Being, however, ill supplied with provisions and money by Philip, and insufficiently supported by the League, he was forced to yield to the superior power of Henry, and died soon after at Arras, in 1592. He was really an able warrior, and, though severe in his discipline, was almost worshiped by his soldiers. The Farnese family became extinct in 1731. The name of this family has been bestowed upon several celebrated works of art. The Farnese Palace at Rome is an edifice erected by Pope Paul III. before his accession to the Holy See, after the design of Antonio da San Gallo, and completed by Michael Angelo. The Farnesina is a very elegant palace in the Trastevere, celebrated chiefly for the frescoes of Raphael. The Farnese Bull and the Farnese Hercules, antique sculptures, which were formerly in the Farnese Palace, are now in the museum at Naples.

The Duke of Alva, on leaving the Netherlands, was received at Madrid with the highest distinction, but shortly after was banished to his castle of Uzeda, for assisting his son, who had been arrested for misdemeanor at court, to escape. Here he remained two years, when the troubles in Portugal, the crown of which Philip claimed as his hereditary right, induced the king to draw Alva from his retreat. The duke accordingly led an army into Portugal, and drove out Don Antonio, who, as grandson of John III., had taken possession of the throne. The whole country was speedily conquered, in 1581, and Alva, with his accustomed cruelty and rapacity, seized the treasures of the capital, while he allowed the soldiers to plunder without mercy the suburbs and the surrounding country. Philip, dissatisfied with these proceedings, desired to have an investigation of the conduct of the duke, but the haughty bearing of the latter, and the fear of a revolt, induced him to abandon his design. Alva died at Lisbon, in 1582, at the age of seventy-four. He had a fine countenance, with a haughty air and a robust frame; he slept little, while he both labored and wrote much. It has been said of him that during sixty years of military service he never lost a battle, and never allowed himself to be surprised.

Cardinal Granvelle still retained his post with Philip; negotiated the union of Portugal with Spain; and concluded a marriage between the Infanta Catherine and the Duke of Savoy, which was a master-stroke of policy, as it counteracted the plans of France with regard to Milan. In the midst of this incessant occupation he died, in 1586, of consumption. Whatever opinion may be formed of Granvelle, all will agree that he was indefatigable, firm in his resolutions, irreproachable in his administration, and steadily active in the cause of Spain and of his religion.

Maurice of Nassau, Prince of Orange, and Stadholder of the United Dutch Provinces, was the youngest son by a second marriage of William I., Prince of Orange, and was studying at Leyden when his father was assassinated. The provinces of Holland and Zealand, and, soon after, Utrecht, immediately elected the young prince Stadholder, and his talents as a general surpassed all expectations. In 1590 he took Breda by surprise, and delivered Guelderland, Overyssel, Friesland, and Gröningen from the Spaniards. With the chief command by land and sea of all the United Provinces, he also received the Stadholdership of Guelderland and Overyssel; that of Friesland and Gröningen being conferred on his cousin William, Count of Nassau. Previous to the truce of twelve years, in 1609, about forty towns and several fortresses had fallen into his hands. He defeated the Spaniards in three pitched battles, at the same time that naval victories were gained by the vice-admirals of the republic on the coasts of Spain and Flanders. Thus became the object of the general affection and respect of his countrymen, his ambitious spirit now aimed at sovereignty. To effect his purpose, he took advantage of the religious quarrels of the Arminians and Gomarites, or the Remonstrants and Counter-Remonstrants.

Jacobus Arminius studied first in the University of Leyden, and afterwards went to Geneva, where he received the instructions of Theodore Beza, the most rigid of Calvinists. On his return to Amsterdam, in 1588, he was appointed minister, and was commissioned to defend the doctrine of Beza, regarding predestination, against the charges which the ministers of Delft had proposed to make. Arminius, after carefully examining both sides of the question, at last came to adopt the opinions he had been commissioned to confute; and asserted, in substance, that God bestows forgiveness and eternal life on all who repent of their sins and believe in Christ; he wills that all men should attain salvation, and only because he has from eternity foreseen the belief or unbelief of individuals has he from eternity determined the fate of each. The greatest enemy of Arminius was Francis Gomar,

his colleague in the University of Leyden, and bitter disputes began between them. Never was the *odium theologicum* exhibited in more unmixed purity than in their fierce disputations. This controversy continued until 1614, when the states of Holland, acting under the advice of Olden Barneveld, a senator, and the learned Hugo Grotius, issued an edict of full toleration for both parties, prohibiting at the same time the continuance of the controversy. The Counter-Reformationists (or Calvinists) refused to submit to this edict, and the strife soon became so furious that the Arminians found it necessary to guard themselves from personal violence by appointing a safeguard of militiamen. The controversy now merged in the strife of party politics. Maurice took advantage of this to crush his opponents of the republican party whose leaders were adherents of the Arminian doctrines. Several Arminians were put to death,—among them the aged senator Olden Barneveld; while Grotius was imprisoned. In these circumstances the Synod of Dort was called, in 1618, attended by representatives from the Netherlands, England, Scotland, the Palatinate, Switzerland, Nassau, East Friesland, and Bremen. This synod confirmed the Belgic Confession and the Heidelberg Catechism as authorities for the reformed churches of the Netherlands; and three hundred Arminians, chiefly preachers, were expelled from office. The defeated party sought refuge in France, Holstein, and England; but afterwards, under Frederic Henry, Maurice's successor, they were again tolerated in Holland.

Notwithstanding all Maurice's efforts, he was compelled to abandon his ambitious project. He died at the Hague in 1625, and was succeeded by his brother Frederic Henry. The life of Maurice was an almost unbroken series of battles, sieges, and victories. War he understood as a master, and conducted like a hero. His army was considered as the best school of the military art. The generals educated under him have contributed to his fame. Like Montecuculi, he possessed the rare art of conducting a march and pitching a camp; like Vauban, the genius of fortification and defense; like Eugene, the skill to support the most numerous armies in the most unproductive and exhausted country; like Vendôme, the good fortune to obtain more from the soldiers than he had a right to expect; like Condé, that unerring *coup-d'œil* which determines the issue of the battle; like Charles XII., the power of rendering the troops insensible to cold, hunger, and sufferings; like Turenne, that of sparing human life. In the opinion of Folard, Maurice was the greatest infantry general that had existed since the time of the Romans. He had learned the art of war from

the ancients, and extended it by the results of his own and others' experience.

Albert, Archduke of Austria, was the third son of the Emperor Maximilian II. He was brought up at the Spanish court, and dedicated himself to the Church. In 1577 he was made cardinal, in 1584 Archbishop of Toledo, and during the years 1594–96 held the office of Viceroy of Portugal. Philip next appointed him Stadholder in the Netherlands. Albert now abandoned his ecclesiastical profession, and, in 1598, married the Infanta Isabella, who received the Netherlands for her dowry. Albert, immediately after his marriage, proceeded to the Netherlands, and discharged the duties of a ruler with prudence and dignity. Cardinal Bentivoglio, who resided a considerable time at his court, praises his uprightness, his moderation, his love of serious study, his industry, his perseverance, and his discretion, though he does not conceal the fact that he was a prince better fitted for peace than for war. He displayed at first both courage and enthusiasm, but afterwards he was accused of dilatoriness and timidity. Meanwhile, he did not receive from Spain the promised help; and, moreover, affairs had reached such a pitch that they could hardly become worse. Albert, however, did the best that could be done. His mild, moderate, and unpersecuting character contributed essentially to the re-establishment of the Spanish authority in the Netherlands.

Philip II. no sooner returned from the Netherlands to Spain, than he set about to fulfill the vow he made if victorious at the great battle of St. Quentin, which took place on St. Lawrence's day, to erect a palace in honor of that saint. This "eighth wonder of the world," as the Spaniards proudly styled it, situated twenty-two miles from Madrid, was built in the form of a gridiron, because the saint is said to have suffered martyrdom by being broiled on a gridiron. The Escorial to be erected was to serve the threefold purpose of a palace, a monastery, and a tomb for Philip's parents, as well as for their descendants of the royal line of Austria. This edifice was begun in 1563, and finished in 1584. It forms a huge rectangular parallelogram, seven hundred and forty-four feet from north to south, and five hundred and eighty feet from east to west, and divided into long courts, which indicate the interstices of the bars. Towers at each angle of this parallelogram represent the feet of the gridiron, which is supposed to be lying upside down; and from the centre of one of the sides a range of building abuts, forming the royal residence, and representing the handle. It is an immense building, having fourteen thousand doors and eleven thousand windows, and its cost was six million ducats.

Philip had given a degree of attention to the study of the fine arts seldom found in persons of his condition. He was a connoisseur in painting, and above all in architecture, and no prince of his time has left behind him so many proofs of his taste and magnificence in building. Philip was desirous that as many of the materials as possible for the structure of the Escorial should be collected from his own dominions. The gray stone of its walls was drawn from a neighboring quarry, the blocks of which required from forty to fifty yoke of oxen to draw. The jasper came from the neighborhood of Burgo de Osma; and the more delicate marbles, of a great variety of colors, from the mountain-ranges in the south of the Peninsula. The damasks and velvets were supplied from the manufactures of Granada. Madrid, Toledo, and Saragossa showed the proficiency of native art in curious manufactures of bronze and iron, and occasionally of the more precious metals. Yet Philip was largely indebted to his foreign possessions for the embellishment of the interior of the edifice. Milan, so renowned at that period for its fine workmanship in steel, gold, and precious stones, contributed many exquisite specimens of art. The walls were clothed with gorgeous tapestries from the Flemish looms. Spanish convents vied with one another in furnishing embroideries for the altars. Even the rude colonies in the New World had their part in the great work, and the American forests their cedar, and ebony, and richly-tinted woods, which displayed all their magical brilliancy of color under the hands of the Castilian workmen. The oil-paintings and frescoes which profusely decorated the walls and ceilings of the Escorial were executed by artists chiefly from Italy, whose schools of design were still in all their glory. But of all living painters, Titian was the one whom Philip, like his father, delighted to honor. To the king's generous patronage the world is indebted for some of that great master's noblest productions, which found a fitting place on the walls of the Escorial.

Philip's first wife was his cousin, Mary of Portugal; his second, Mary Tudor of England; his third, Isabella (or Elizabeth) of France; and since the death of Don Carlos he had only daughters remaining. The Spaniards longed for a male heir to the crown: he therefore married again. His fourth wife was his niece, Anne of Austria, daughter of the Emperor Maximilian II., who, as well as Elizabeth of France, had been plighted to the unfortunate Don Carlos. In 1570, Anne bade a last adieu to her father's court, and with a stately retinue set out on her long journey. On entering Flanders, she was received with great pomp by the Duke of Alva at the head of the Flemish

nobles. Soon after her arrival Queen Elizabeth dispatched a squadron of eight vessels, with offers to transport her to Spain, and an invitation for her to visit England on her way. These offers were courteously declined, and the German princess, escorted by Count Bossu, captain-general of the Flemish navy, with a gallant squadron, was fortunate in reaching the place of her destination in less than a week. The Archbishop of Seville and the Duke of Bejar, with a brilliant train of followers, were waiting to receive her as she landed at Santander, and conducted her by the way of Burgos and Valladolid to the ancient city of Segovia. She went first to the cathedral, and after the *Te Deum* had been chanted the splendid procession took its way to the far-famed *alcazar*, that palace-fortress originally built by the Moors. Here she found the good Princess Juana, Philip's sister, who received her with the same womanly kindness which she had shown twelve years before to Elizabeth of France on a similar occasion. Philip, it is said, obtained his first view of his betrothed when, mingling in disguise among the cavalcade of courtiers, he accompanied her entrance into the capital. The marriage took place the next day in the cathedral, the Archbishop of Seville performing the service. As soon as the building of the Escorial was sufficiently advanced to afford suitable accommodation for his young queen, Philip passed a part of every summer in its cloistered solitudes. The presence of Anne and her courtly train diffused something like an air of gayety over the grand but gloomy pile, to which it had been little accustomed.

Her wedded life was destined not to be a long one,—only two years longer than that of Elizabeth. She was blessed, however, with a more numerous progeny than either of her predecessors. She had four sons and a daughter; but all died in infancy or early childhood except the third son, who, as Philip III., lived to take his place in the royal dynasty of Castile. Anne died in 1580, in the thirty-first year of her age, and was buried in the royal chapel of the Escorial.

Reverses and disease at length broke Philip's spirit. In 1585 he had declared himself "Protector of the League," in France, in the war called the War of the Three Henrys; that is, Henry III., Henry of Navarre, and Henry, Duke of Guise. After the assassination of Henry III., Philip was anxious to obtain the crown of France for his daughter Clara Eugenia. The Protestant princes of Europe, dreading the power that would thus be added to the Spanish monarchy, resolved to support Henry IV., and Queen Elizabeth of England especially assisted him with money and warlike stores. Henry soon got the better of his enemies, and forced the Spanish army to retreat; and Philip, desirous

of restoring tranquillity to his dominions, concluded the treaty of Vervins with France. He died the next year, September 13, 1598. The gout, dropsy, and a violent fever had afflicted him during the last two years of his life; but he retained his senses and his activity to the last. Sores on his breast and knees, the consequence of his early debaucheries, disturbed his last days, and from their corrupt matter issued swarms of lice, which the physicians were unable to destroy. He bore his sufferings with great firmness, and punctiliously observed all the rites of the Catholic Church. Philip was a prince of considerable capacity, and he entered with facility into the details of affairs. His pomp, generosity, activity, and just administration, when it did not interfere with his own private plans, made a strong impression on the minds of men; but his boundless ambition, his severity, and his gloomy superstition made his reign a period of war and bad passions, and exhausted the immense resources of his empire. Among his instruments was poison, which he familiarly called his *requiescat in pace* (rest in peace). With his reign began the decline of the Spanish monarchy.

ARTISTS.

A revival of art was attempted in Italy by two classes of artists: the Eclectics, who endeavored to select and unite the best qualities of each of the great masters, combined with the study of nature; and the Naturalisti, who aimed at forming an independent style, distinct from that of the earlier masters, based on the indiscriminate imitation of common life, and treated in a bold and lively manner. The most celebrated eclectic school was founded at Bologna by Ludovico Carracci, who lived 1555-1619, and who was assisted by his two nephews, Agostini and Annibale, the latter the most eminent of the three. Among the artists reared in this school, Domenichino and Guido Reni were by far the most eminent. Michael Angelo Amerighi da Caravaggio (1569-1609) was the founder of the naturalistic school; he resided principally at Rome, but at a later period went to Naples, Malta, and Sicily; the greatest strength of this school was at Naples, where they perseveringly opposed the followers of the Carracci, their leader being Giuseppe Ribera, a Spaniard, hence called Spagnoletto (1593-1656). With much of the force of Caravaggio, he united more delicacy and greater vivacity of color.

Torquato Tasso, the Italian poet, equally remarkable for his genius and his misfortunes, went to Rome in 1594, and was received with great distinction. Pope Clement VIII. overwhelmed him with praises, and said to him, "I give to you the laurel, that it may receive as much

honor from you as it has conferred upon those who have had it before you." The solemnity was, however, delayed until spring, in order to give it the greater splendor. During the winter Tasso's health failed more and more, and he died April 25, 1595, the very day which had been appointed for his coronation.

James Crichton, a Scottish scholar, was so remarkable for his mental and bodily endowments that he was universally entitled the *Admirable Crichton*. At twenty he could speak ten different languages, and was perfectly versed in all the lighter accomplishments of fencing, dancing, and music. He traveled into different countries, and charmed every one by his prowess and liberality. The Duke of Mantua engaged him to be tutor to his son, Vincentio. During the carnival, Crichton was walking in the streets of Mantua, playing on his guitar, when several persons disguised in masks attacked him; but he repelled them, and disarmed their leader, who, pulling off his mask, pleaded for his life. It was Vincentio. Crichton, apologizing for his mistake with more gallantry than propriety, fell on his knees, and, giving his sword to the prince, bade him take his life if he pleased. The base Vincentio, actuated by mean and paltry passions, profited by his tutor's generosity, and, seizing the offered weapon, stabbed Crichton to the heart! This was in 1581.

Miguel de Cervantes Saavedra, one of the greatest imaginative writers of Spain, was a contemporary of the Emperor Rudolph. He published his immortal work, *Don Quixote*, in 1605. The first part of this great satirical work appeared in Madrid, and was received at first coolly, but soon afterwards with loud applause, which, at a later period, was echoed from all parts of educated Europe.

East India Company.—From the time when Vasco da Gama effected the eastern passage to India, by doubling the Cape of Good Hope, in 1497, the Portuguese carried on an extensive trade with that country, unaffected by rivals until nearly a century afterwards, when the Dutch and English began to compete with them. In December, 1600, a charter was granted by Queen Elizabeth to a number of London merchants, under the title of "The Governor and Company of Merchants of London trading to the East Indies." Their principal settlements were made at Bombay, Madras, and Calcutta.

MATTHIAS, MATHIAS. A.D. 1612-1619.

"Amat Victoria curas." (Victory loves trouble.)



MATHIAS.

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towards each other with redoubled fury. And now fresh disturbances broke out between the governors of the territory of Juliers. The prince-palatine, Wolfgang William, had been accepted as the future husband of a princess of the House of Brandenburg, and had paid a visit to the court of Berlin. One day while at dinner, and heated with wine, a dispute arose between him and the Elector, who gave the prince-palatine a blow on the ear. The indignant prince quitted Berlin immediately, and, out of hatred to the House of Brandenburg, adopted the Catholic religion and married a princess of Bavaria. The Elector, to secure his portion of Juliers by getting the assistance of the Netherlands, abandoned the Lutheran Church and became a Calvinist. In every dispute between parties of different faith, Matthias decided in favor of the Catholics. And now the uneasiness and anxiety of the Protestants were greatly increased by the selection which was made of a successor to the imperial throne.

The male line of Maximilian II. having ended in Matthias, and his brothers, Maximilian and Albert, having no children, the succession to the hereditary dominions of Austria in Germany might have been claimed, on plausible grounds, by Philip III. of Spain, son of Anne of Austria, daughter of the Emperor Maximilian II. But a natural love of tranquillity, the desire of preserving in his house the imperial crown, and the dread of that dignity devolving on the head of a heretic determined Philip to comply with the request of the Austrian princes to yield his pretensions in favor of Ferdinand of Grätz, great-grandson of the Emperor Ferdinand I., and distinguished for his zeal for the Catholic religion. Philip, accordingly, made a solemn cession of all his rights to the Austrian provinces to Ferdinand and his brothers and their male issue. But, if that should fail, it was stipulated that the provinces should return to the house of Spain, of which the females were to be preferred before those born in Germany. Philip and Ferdinand entered into a family compact, and made a league offensive and defensive, engaging to support their respective rights and claims, and to prefer the general interest of the Austrian race before any particular or transient advantage to any of its members. The date of these transactions was the year 1617. In the same year Ferdinand was raised to the crown of Bohemia, and in the year following to that of Hungary, with this reservation, that the regal power should remain with Matthias during his life.

The man on whose mind these proceedings made the deepest impression was Frederic V., elector-palatine, a young and high-spirited prince, and in power not inferior to any of the Protestants, the Duke

of Saxony perhaps excepted. He thought that the present state of affairs presented a favorable opportunity to check the progress of Austrian ambition, and visited all the electors, entreating them to help him check the growth of an authority which must otherwise become irresistible, and by a spirited and judicious exercise of their privileges perpetuate them in their families. He found, as he had expected, all the Catholic electors attached to the House of Austria, and these were four in number, while the Protestants were only three. With the consent of his Protestant brethren, Frederic offered the imperial crown to the Duke of Bavaria, not doubting that his brother Ernest, Archbishop of Cologne, one of the Catholic electors, would interest himself in the fortunes of his brother, Duke Maximilian. This plan was the more solid and judicious, because it was obvious and natural. The Duke of Bavaria, however, rejected the proffered dignity, and all that the policy and zeal of Frederic could effect was a short delay in the election of the Emperor.

Meantime, matters in Bohemia were hastening to a crisis. The *Letter of Majesty*, which the Protestants had interpreted in its most comprehensive sense, led them to begin and build their churches on the lands of the ecclesiastics,—a freedom which appeared to the whole Catholic party an intolerable outrage. Complaints of these encroachments having been carried to Matthias, he instantly issued a letter of authority prohibiting the Protestants from building on lands belonging to the Church. In consequence of this proclamation one or two meeting-houses were demolished. The Protestants were thrown into a ferment, their resentment against the Emperor being exasperated by the recollection of the deceitful promises with which he had beguiled them when a candidate for the imperial throne. The Bohemian Defenders, whose business it was to watch over the interests of the Church, to spread an alarm in time of danger, and to concert measures for common defense, were enabled to combine in any effort that might be deemed necessary for the preservation of the true religion. Henry, Count Thorn or Thurn, perceiving the force of this great machine, and how easy it would be, at this present juncture, to set in movement, conceived the bold design of turning it against the House of Austria. Deprived of his paternal inheritance by the tyranny of the Archduke of Grätz, on account of his steadfast adherence to the doctrines of the Reformation, and driven from his native country, he found refuge among the Protestants of Bohemia. His zeal and what he had suffered on account of his faith gained him the favor and confidence of this people, and the superiority of his genius won their esteem. Matthias,

when he thought it good policy to court the Protestants, affected a desire to re-establish the fortune of the count, and, accordingly, when he seized the crown of Bohemia, invested him with the command of Carlestein, a fortress in which were deposited the regalia of the kingdom; but when the power of Matthias was established, by the death of Rudolph, he threw off the mask and openly patronized the faith in which he had been educated and which was most favorable to regal power. The Emperor regarded the independent principles of Count Thorn with jealousy and distrust. That nobleman was, therefore, deprived of the government of Carlestein, which was bestowed on Count Martinitz, a devoted instrument of ecclesiastic and regal authority. Count Thorn hastened from place to place, laboring in public assemblies and in private societies to rouse a sense of danger and a spirit of freedom; and at his instigation the Defenders, or chiefs of the Protestants, called a general assembly of the states of the kingdom. Matthias forbade them to assemble; but, notwithstanding this prohibition, they met in Prague, and mutually pledged themselves to defend their religion and their churches, not only in Prague but in every part of Bohemia. It was also resolved to publish to the world an account of their present conduct and future views. The exordium of their manifesto contained the strongest expressions of loyalty to the Emperor as King of Bohemia.

In the midst of these transactions, an order arrived from the imperial ministry commanding the Protestant leaders to disperse and to retire to their respective habitations. Upon this, Count Thorn, attended by a number of other barons on horseback and in armor, rode up to the castle, and, having secured its gates, proceeded immediately to the hall, in which the ministers of Matthias were assembled in council on the present important emergency. Invective and altercation were soon followed by blows; and the Counts Martinitz, Slawata, and Fabricius, who held the principal offices of government, were thrown headlong out at the windows. Though they fell from a height of sixty feet, and several shots of musketry were fired at them as they fell, they escaped, not only with their lives, but free even from any material harm. The Catholics considered this remarkable preservation of these three men as a miracle wrought by Heaven in support of the Romish faith. Minute descriptions are accordingly given in the writings of those times of the wall of the castle of Visigrade, and of the tremendous precipice which intervenes between the bottom of the wall and the ditch. But Protestant writers say it was not a miracle,—that the spot on which these Catholics fell was covered deep with dung, mud, and the leaves

of trees. This singular mode of execution naturally astonished civilized nations; but the Bohemians justified it as a national custom, and saw nothing remarkable in the whole affair, except that any one should have got up again after such a fall. The Archduke Ferdinand of Grätz congratulated Matthias upon an event which would justify, in the eyes of all Europe, the most severe measures against the Bohemian Protestants.

The Bohemians now, involved in the guilt of rebellion, determined to persevere and restore their ancient laws and constitution. They drove out the old garrison from the castle, which was also the royal palace, and replaced it by another in which they could confide; and then they appointed thirty directors to govern Bohemia. The first act of their power was to banish the Jesuits and confiscate their property. They raised an army of two thousand horse and twelve regiments of foot, and gave the supreme command to Count Thorn. Ernest, Count of Mansfeldt or Mansfeld, was the first who espoused the Bohemian cause, and the last of its adherents who abandoned it. He was a natural son of that Count Mansfeldt whom Philip II. appointed governor of the Netherlands. In his early years he attached himself, like his father, to the House of Austria. The court of Vienna was filled with just admiration of his talents and virtues, and, in a transient fit of favor, promised to invest him with a right of legitimate birth, and to put him in possession of the estates of his family. But a regard to interest violated a promise that had been made merely from generosity; and as the most violent resentments are those which arise from disappointed confidence, Count Mansfeldt's hatred of Matthias was implacable. His aversion to the House of Austria extended even to their religion, and he renounced the Catholic faith and openly professed the doctrines of Luther. He abandoned the service of the Emperor, and entered that of Charles Emanuel of Savoy, the most active and enterprising of all the enemies of Austria. But the present situation of affairs in Germany opened so full a career to the genius, the ambition, and the vengeance of Mansfeldt, that he could not forbear expressing to the generous prince whom he now served an eager desire of offering his sword to the revolted states of Bohemia. The Duke of Savoy, who considered the disturbances in Germany as the surest pledge of his own security, not only applauded the views of the count, but permitted him to levy two thousand men, and also engaged to keep them in pay for several months; and with this small force Mansfeldt marched into Bohemia, where he was received with the utmost joy, and instantly honored with the charge of general of the

ordnance. Thus the forces of Bohemia were intrusted to two foreigners, both breathing vengeance against the House of Austria. Count Thorn, who had the talent of rousing, uniting, and wielding the minds of men, was the best fitted to govern a nation; Mansfeldt, brave, enterprising, inventive, and refined, the best qualified to conduct an army. These fierce commanders took the field at the head of separate armies, and the flag of rebellion was displayed throughout all Bohemia, and by a powerful contagion excited a general insurrection in Silesia, Moravia, Lusatia, Hungary, and Upper Austria.

Matthias was distracted with opposing passions. He was not able to take the field in person: the command of the army would be claimed by Ferdinand; and this would place in the hands of that prince the whole authority of the government. At length they agreed to intrust the famous Count Bucquoy or Brecquoi with the command of the forces. While fortune was inclining sometimes to the one side and sometimes to the other, Matthias, who had labored long under bodily infirmities and anxious cares, died on the 20th of March, 1619, and was buried at Vienna. His wife was Anna of Austria. They had no children.

FERDINAND II., FERDINAND DER ZWEITE. A.D. 1619-1637.

"*Legitime certantibus.*" (Lawful combatants.)

FERDINAND II., nephew of the Emperor Maximilian II., son of Charles, Archduke of Styria, was born at Grätz. His mother, Mary of Bavaria, inspired him with hatred against the Protestants. He was educated at Ingolstadt, by the Jesuits, along with his cousin, Maximilian of Bavaria. He went to Loretto after he had finished his education, and took a solemn oath before the altar of the Virgin to reinstate Catholicism as the sole religion in his dominions. As soon as he succeeded to his own duchy of Styria, he set about putting down Protestantism, compelling those who would not join the ancient faith to leave the country. This created much disturbance; yet the young prince showed such resolute determination that he succeeded in quelling the discontent almost before its outbreak; and although, as a warning, he caused to be erected in various parts of his dukedom places of execution for the most turbulent, he was not obliged to shed a drop of blood. Thus in a few short years not a single Protestant church was left standing, nor a Protestant left to preach throughout the whole of his dominions, in which, until then, the majority of the

inhabitants had been Protestants. Such persevering energy, displayed by so young a prince, very naturally excited great hopes among the Catholics, while it produced serious alarm among the Protestants. Ferdinand II. was chosen Emperor August 28, 1619.



FERDINAND II.

vanced upon Vienna with a Bohemian army, and when asked respecting his expedition, replied, "I am marching in search of any collected bodies of troops or people, and wherever found I shall disperse them. In future there must be perfect equality between Catholics and Protestants, and the former must not, as heretofore, have the ascendancy, and float, as it were, like oil upon the surface." He marched upon Vienna, and his men began to fire upon the imperial castle, where Ferdinand, surrounded by open and secret foes, had taken up his quarters. He dared not leave his capital, lest Austria, and even the empire, might be sacrificed. His enemies looked upon him as lost, and already spoke of confi-

fining him in a convent and educating his children in the Protestant faith. The whole garrison of Vienna amounted only to fifteen hundred foot and two hundred horse. This small force was under the necessity of guarding the city not only from outward attacks, but also from internal sedition: for Count Thorn had a numerous party within the walls of Vienna, who had engaged to facilitate its reduction by securing one of the principal gates. Had that commander advanced on this occasion with his usual celerity, he would, in all probability, have captured the city. But, trusting to the terror of his arms, he summoned the Emperor to surrender, and lay two whole days inactive, waiting for an answer. Meantime, five hundred students in the university armed themselves to defend Ferdinand, and a reinforcement of several companies of cuirassiers, having passed under false colors through the midst of the Bohemian squadrons, arrived from the Grand Duke of Tuscany. At this instant some zealots were in the act of shaking Ferdinand by the doublet, and demanding, with many imprecations, liberty of conscience. At that critical moment, a flourish of trumpets and the trampling of horses was heard at the castle gates, and the sight of the cuirassiers and the glittering of their swords and spears relieved Ferdinand from the importunities of his rude petitioners, and filled them in their turn with consternation and terror. Count Thorn was obliged soon to return to Bohemia, as Prague was menaced by the armies of Austria. Ferdinand's friends had not been idle, and his own native courage was supported by the treasures, the arms, and the authority of Spain. A body of eight thousand men marched from the Low Countries to reinforce the imperial army under Bucquoy: and Spinola, with an army of thirty thousand, composed of Italians, Spaniards, Walloons, and Irish, prepared to invade the Palatinate. The powerful aid of Spain encouraged the Electors of Saxony and Bavaria to appear on that side which now seemed the strongest, and by adhering to which they might look for the highest advantage to themselves. The Elector of Saxony flattered himself that the Emperor would leave him unmolested in the quiet administration of his own internal affairs; while the Elector of Bavaria, Maximilian I., was promised the estates and the dignity of his kinsman, the Elector-palatine. The example and influence of Maximilian of Bavaria, the authority of the whole House of Austria, and the common interests of the Romish faith, united all the princes of the Catholic League in a resolution to support Ferdinand with their lives and fortunes. Philip III. of Spain, who had married Margaret of Austria, sister of the Emperor Ferdinand, was to furnish monthly forty-five thousand gulden; Pope Paul V., besides his spiritual benediction,

was to give eight thousand, and several ecclesiastics as well as princes of Italy followed his example. An army was quickly raised for the defense of the ancient faith, and the command given to Maximilian of Bavaria.

The Bohemian states formed a league offensive and defensive with the provinces Count Thorn had annexed to Bohemia, and another of the same kind with Bethlehem Gabor, who, from the rank of a private gentleman, had been exalted by the favor of the Porte to the sovereignty of Transylvania. This prince the Bohemians engaged to support in an effort to mount the throne of Hungary, as he, on his part, promised to maintain their right to elect a king of Bohemia. The protection afforded by the Ottoman Empire to Gabor interested the King of Poland also in the prosperity of Ferdinand, and in an instant ten thousand Cossacks, fierce and savage auxiliaries, overran Moravia and joined the imperial army under Bucquoy.

The eyes of all Europe were now turned to England and France. The first was interested in the fortune of Frederic from the connection of blood as well as sympathy of religion; the second, bound by the strongest ties of policy and ambition to oppose the progress of a hated rival. The mere good offices of England were a general subject of derision; and Ferdinand, by the policy of Spain in bribing the Duke de Luynes, the favorite of Louis XIII., felt secure from the attacks of France. Emboldened by these circumstances, the Emperor thundered forth against Frederic the ban of the empire, and committed the execution of that decree to the Archduke Albert and the Dukes of Bavaria and Saxony.

Before we proceed further it may be well to notice briefly the chief actors in the "Thirty Years' War."

THE PROTESTANT UNION.

Frederic V. succeeded to the Palatinate in 1610, was King of Bohemia from 1619 to 1620, and died in 1632. His complete defeat at the battle of Prague terminated his short-lived enjoyment of the regal crown, of which he retained no other memorial than the mocking title of "The Winter King." Ridicule and contumely followed him wherever he went, and the rest of his life was spent in exile under the ban of the empire, and with no resources beyond those which he could obtain from the generosity of his friends. In 1623 he was declared to have forfeited his electoral title and his dominions in the Palatinate, which were conferred upon his cousin, Maximilian of Bavaria, the head of the Catholic League. In 1613 he married Elizabeth Stuart, daughter of King James I. of England. She was born in the palace of Falkland,

twenty-two miles from Edinburgh, in 1596. In 1603 her father became King of England, and she was educated in England. In 1613 she was married to the Elector-palatine, and lived in the castle of Heidelberg. In 1619 they removed to Prague, and occupied the throne about one year. After being driven from Prague, they fled with their little children into Silesia, where their abode was as short as it was comfortless. At Brandenburg, whither Frederic retired from Silesia, he was reminded how much his family had suffered from their imprudent ambition by the birth of a son. Some years after, on a journey to Amsterdam, in crossing the Harlem Sea, in a dark and tempestuous night, the light vessel in which he sailed foundered on another, against which it was driven by the fury of the winds and waves. Before the ship sank, Frederic and some other passengers made their escape to the other vessel; but the prince, his son, was unfortunately left in the foundered vessel, which they durst not approach, though they heard the cries of the boy calling out for the help of his father. The next day when the tempest abated they found him frozen to the mast, which he had embraced as his last refuge. While Frederic was thus wrestling with adversity, his friends and allies left him, one after another, and sought to reconcile themselves to the Emperor. He had thirteen children. The eldest perished, as we have said, going to Amsterdam, and three others died young. The others were Charles Louis, Rupert, Elizabeth, Maurice, Edward, Philip, Louise, Henrietta Maria, and Sophia. Charles Louis was a selfish, calculating person, with low, disreputable habits. Rupert, the "mad cavalier," and Maurice fought in England during the civil war, and after the loss of the royal cause at the battle of Naseby they betook themselves to the sea, where they were little better than pirates. Edward became a Roman Catholic; Philip committed an assassination at the Hague, fled from justice, became a soldier of fortune, and was slain in the civil wars; Elizabeth became superior of the Lutheran abbey of Hervorden; Henrietta Maria married Ragnotti, Prince of Transylvania, but died shortly after; Louise went to France and became abbess of Maubisson. The Queen of Bohemia settled at the Hague, and in 1632 her husband died. In 1638, by the treaty of Westphalia, her son Charles Louis was restored to the Palatinate, and all that he would do for the family was to give shelter to his youngest sister, Sophia, until she was married to Ernest Augustus, of the House of Brunswick, who afterwards succeeded to the electorate of Hanover. Her son, shortly after her death, was elevated to the throne of England. The Queen of Bohemia having resolved to leave Holland, her nephew, Charles II., invited her to visit England, but

he paid her little attention when there. She was obliged to sell her jewels, and then the British Parliament voted her a subsidy. She died in 1662, and was buried in Westminster Abbey. Charlotte Elizabeth, daughter of Charles Louis, married Philip of Orleans, brother of Louis XIV. Her son was the notorious Regent of France during the minority of Louis XV.

Christian IV., King of Denmark and Norway, and Duke of Schleswig-Holstein, born in Zealand in 1577, and elected successor to the throne in 1580, assumed the sceptre in 1593. From 1610 he carried on a successful war, known as the Kalmarian War, against Charles IX. of Sweden and his successor, Gustavus Adolphus, which ended in an advantageous peace in 1613. As leader of the Protestants in the Thirty Years' War, Christian was not successful. His labors for the improvement of his country, in which he was indefatigable, were, however, most beneficial. He strengthened its maritime power, extended its commerce as far as the East Indies, where he obtained the first possessions, and by restrictions upon the Hanse towns greatly increased the inland trade of the country. His legislative and financial reforms, together with his love and patronage of the arts and sciences, gained for him the esteem of the people, especially the learned. Christian married the sister of Frederic V. of the Palatinate. He died in 1648.

Peter Ernest, Count of Mansfeldt or Mansfeld, was a descendant of one of the most ancient families of German counts. His father was governor of Luxemburg and Brussels. He was brought up a Catholic; but when the dignity and estates of his father were denied him, he joined the Protestants, and became one of the most formidable enemies of the House of Austria. He was one of the greatest generals of his time, and rose more formidable after every defeat. With great understanding he united overpowering eloquence and inexhaustible cunning. Not far from Zara he fell ill and died, in 1626, and was buried at Spalatro. At the approach of death he ordered his armor to be put on him, and stood up, leaning on two of his aids, to await the last enemy. He maintained his troops by plunder, and was compared to Attila.

Bernhard, Duke of Weimar, the youngest of the eight sons of John, third Duke of Saxe-Weimar, was one of the most celebrated of the Protestant leaders, and first distinguished himself at the bloody battle of Wimpfen. Subsequently he became colonel in the army of Christian IV. of Denmark. He took part in the bold expedition of Count Mansfeldt through Silesia and Hungary. In 1631 he joined

Gustavus Adolphus, and was with him in the battle of Lützen, where he avenged the death of the Swedish hero. Bernhard died at Neuburg, on the Rhine, in 1639.

Gustavus Adolphus, the greatest monarch of Sweden, grandson of Gustavus Vasa, was born at Stockholm in 1594. He succeeded his father at the age of eighteen, and when Denmark, Poland, and Russia were at war with Sweden. Unable to cope at once with three such powerful adversaries, he paid Denmark one million dollars, but received back all that had been conquered from Sweden. After a successful campaign, he shut Russia out from the Baltic. Poland, unsuccessful against him, made a truce for six years. After the Emperor had proclaimed Wallenstein Duke of Mecklenburg and admiral of the Baltic and North Seas, Gustavus, seeing his country in danger and the Protestant Church threatened with annihilation, resolved to deliver both. He was a Lutheran. In 1630 he landed on the coast of Pomerania with thirteen thousand men, and, although he met with difficulties on the part of those princes whom he had come to aid, yet his wisdom, generosity, and perseverance triumphed over inconstancy, mistrust, and weakness. He performed deeds of heroism at the head of his army, and fell, an unconquered and unsullied general, at the battle of Lützen, November 6, 1632. He was killed by an Austrian ball; his buff coat was carried to Vienna, where it is still kept; but Bernhard of Weimar carried the body to Weissenfels, to give it to the Queen of Sweden. There the heart remained in the land for which it bled.

Axel, Count of Oxenstiern, an illustrious Swedish statesman, was born in 1583. In 1608 he was admitted into the senate, in which his thirteen immediate ancestors had held a seat. He was made chancellor on the accession of Gustavus Adolphus, and accompanied him to Germany. After the death of Gustavus, and the defeat of the Swedes at Nordlingen, he transferred the leadership of the Protestant forces to Duke Bernhard of Weimar, went to France and Holland for aid, and ably directed the policy of the Protestants in Germany until the Peace of Westphalia, in 1648. His son was one of the Swedish envoys who signed the treaty; and it is in a letter to him that the famous sentence of this statesman occurs, "You do not yet know, my son, with how little wisdom men are governed." After Christina abdicated the throne of Sweden, he withdrew from public life, and died shortly after, in 1654.

Leonard Torstensohn, a Swedish general, was one of the most distinguished pupils of Gustavus Adolphus. He served under that king and under Baner, and was made prisoner in the attack on Wallen-

stein's camp at Nuremberg, in 1632. On the death of Baner, in 1641, he was made commander-in-chief of the Swedish forces in Germany. He suffered so much from the gout that he was usually obliged to be carried in a litter. A rupture occurring between Denmark and Sweden, he marched with great rapidity from Silesia to Holstein, a distance of four hundred miles, conquered that province, and made an advantageous peace for Sweden. He then returned and drove the imperial General Gallas from Bohemia; then, uniting his army with that of Ragotzi, Prince of Transylvania, he routed the imperial forces at Jankowitz, in 1645, and threatened Vienna. In 1646 his health compelled him to resign. He was a great and successful general, and a patron of the arts and sciences.

THE CATHOLIC LEAGUE.

Maximilian I., Elector of Bavaria, succeeded his father, William V. the Pious, who resigned in 1596 and retired into a monastery. After Maximilian had studied Latin, Italian, French, and Spanish, his father sent him to the University of Ingolstadt, where, with his cousin Ferdinand of Styria, he was carefully educated by the Jesuits. In 1593 he traveled with the Jesuit Gregory of Valencia to the court of the Emperor Rudolph, at Prague, then to Loretto, Rome, and Naples. On his return he went to Nancy, to visit his uncle Francis, Duke of Lorraine, where he became acquainted with his cousin Elizabeth, whom he married in 1595. On coming to the throne, he directed his attention to the laws, the finances of his country, and the army; and he was economical and prudent in his government. He was a man of distinguished abilities, and the soul of the Catholic League. In 1623 the Emperor invested him with the dignity of Elector-palatine. The Peace of Westphalia confirmed Maximilian in the electoral dignity, and the possession of the Upper Palatinate, in return for the renunciation of Upper Austria, which had been pledged to him for thirteen million florins, the expenses of war; and, on the other hand, a new electorate, the *eighth*, was established for the Palatinate line, and its succession to the title and territory of the original electorate was settled in case of the failure of the line of William. Maximilian, who is called the Great in the history of Bavaria, died in 1651, after a reign of fifty-five years.

Johann Werner Tzerclas, Count Tilly, was born in Walloon Brabant, and was in his youth a Jesuit. He first entered the Spanish service, then the Austrian, and lastly the Bavarian. He received his military education under the Duke of Alva. He distinguished himself under

Maximilian in the battle of the White Mountain at Prague; and by degrees rose to the command of the Catholic League. When Wallenstein was forced to resign the command, in 1630, Tilly was appointed generalissimo of the imperial troops. His most celebrated exploit was the bloody sack of Magdeburg, in 1631; and history has few pages so black as those on which the atrocities of Isolani's Croats and Pappenheim's Walloons are recorded. Tilly wrote to the Emperor, "Since the destruction of Jerusalem, no such victory has taken place." Tilly had been victorious thirty-six times; but when he met Gustavus Adolphus at Breitenfeld, he was defeated and wounded. In a subsequent engagement with the Swedes on the Lech, a cannon-ball shattered his thigh, and he died in Ingolstadt in 1632. As a soldier he was prompt, cunning, and cruel.

Godfrey Henry, Count Pappenheim, an imperial general, distinguished himself first at the battle of Prague. In 1630 he joined Tilly, whom he even outdid in cruelty at the siege of Magdeburg. Tilly ascribed the loss of the battle of Leipsic to his impetuosity. At Lützen, eleven miles southwest of Leipsic, November 6, 1632, he was mortally wounded, and sent word to Wallenstein, "I depart with joy, as I know that the implacable enemy of my faith has fallen with me on the same day."

Albert, Count of Wallenstein, usually called Wallenstein, Duke of Friedland, was born at Prague in 1583, of a distinguished Bohemian Protestant family. His youth was restless, impetuous, and hostile to discipline, and in all mischievous exploits he was the leader of his fellow-scholars, over whom he exercised a certain supremacy. He behaved in like manner at the University of Altorf, where the commission of an offense brought him into the academic prison. Afterwards he entered as a page into the service of the Margrave Charles of Burgau, a prince of the Austrian-Tyrolean collateral line, who resided at Innspruck; and here he became a Catholic. He received from the margrave the means of traveling in Germany, England, France, and Italy. During his travels, military and financial systems, statesmen and generals, were the only objects of his attention. He then studied for a time mathematics and politics, but especially astrology, at the celebrated University of Padua. In 1606 he distinguished himself in a war with the Turks, and on his return to Prague he married a rich widow, who, dying shortly afterwards, left him immense wealth, which enabled him to play a splendid part at the court of the Emperor Matthias at Vienna. In 1617 he raised at his own expense a body of two hundred cavalry, and led them to the assistance of the Archduke Ferdinand of Styria, afterwards the Emperor Ferdinand II., who was engaged in a war with

Venice, and thus acquired a high place in the archduke's favor. At the end of this war he married for his second wife Isabella, daughter of Count Harrach, a favorite of Ferdinand, and was raised by him to the rank of count. On the breaking out of the troubles in Bohemia, he joined the Austrian party. Fortune continued to favor him, and after the fall of Bucquoy he was created major-general, and fought with success against Bethlehem Gabor. He recovered his estates which had been confiscated by the Protestant Bohemians, and in 1622 the Emperor invested him with the lordship of Friedland, and in 1623 created him Prince of Friedland. When the war commenced in the north of Germany, where Christian IV. of Denmark crossed the Elbe with an army of twenty-five thousand men, joined by seven thousand Saxons, to lead the Protestants, the Emperor found himself in great embarrassment from want of money and troops. Wallenstein offered to raise an army of fifty thousand men at his own expense, and without the least contribution on the part of the Emperor, on condition that he should be its commander-in-chief and should be allowed to retain the contributions obtained from the conquered countries. The Emperor, having no alternative, accepted the proposition, and soon after gave him the title of duke. In 1625, he started from Eger with an army of twenty-five thousand men, and marched to Franconia, through Suabia, the Upper Rhine, and Lower Saxony, everywhere compelling the inhabitants to support his troops, the number of which continued to increase, and, encountering the celebrated Count Mansfeldt with an inferior army, totally defeated him. The count, collecting fresh troops, proceeded through Silesia towards Hungary, to join Bethlehem Gabor. Wallenstein followed him rapidly, and concluded a truce with Gabor, which obliged Mansveldt to withdraw to Dalmatia, where he died. Wallenstein now relieved Novigrad, which was besieged by the Turks, conquered Waitzen, and, returning speedily to Lower Saxony, compelled Christian IV., who could not cope with both him and Tilly, to retreat. Soon after, Wallenstein conquered Mecklenburg, and part of Holstein, levying heavy contributions wherever he went. The fortress of Stralsund alone withheld him, being aided by Sweden and Denmark. After losing twelve thousand men in this siege, he withdrew. Attempting to take the fortress two months afterwards, he said, "The city shall be mine were it fastened by chains to heaven." But in vain: a second time he was obliged to raise the siege. After taking Rostock, and defeating the Danes at Wolgast, his further progress was checked by the peace between the Emperor and Denmark, at Lubeck, in 1629,—a peace which he himself had promoted,

because he expected by it the quiet possession of Mecklenburg. But having ignominiously dismissed the Swedish ambassadors from the congress of Lubeck, and sent his confidential friend Arnhem, with twelve thousand men, to aid King Sigismund of Poland against Gustavus Adolphus, he gave occasion to a new war with Sweden.

The fear of the Emperor's designs, as well as the overbearing conduct of Wallenstein, and the immense extortions which he and his troops practiced, even in neutral countries, having within seven years raised more than four hundred millions of dollars by exactions in the north of Germany, led the German princes, at the diet of Ratisbon, in 1630, to wrest from the Emperor a promise to diminish his army to thirty thousand men and deprive Wallenstein of its chief command. In order to promote the election of his son to succeed him in the empire, Ferdinand II. agreed thus to disgrace a general who had saved Austria and raised it to the summit of power. With the command of the army Wallenstein was obliged also to resign the duchy of Mecklenburg. He seemed, however, to bear with indifference this degradation, and lived from that time in Prague as a private man, but with the pomp of royalty. He spent a great deal of money in splendid buildings, and pulled down one hundred houses to form a court-yard for his palace. His antechamber was protected by fifty life-guards; twelve patrols went their rounds about his palace; sixty pages and twenty chamberlains waited on him; six barons and as many knights attended on his person; his table never consisted of less than one hundred covers; and the pomp of his liveries, the splendor of his equipages, and the decorations of his apartments were in keeping with the rest. He traveled to his estates with a train of one hundred carriages drawn by four or six horses, and always accompanied by his astrologer, Battista Seni, and his court followed in sixty carriages. After Tilly's death, the military successes of Gustavus Adolphus in Germany forced the Emperor to the humiliating step of conferring again on Wallenstein the command of the army. When it was proposed to give him the command of the army once more, it was thought prudent to limit his authority by the presence of a superior, and Questenberg and Werdenberg, old friends of Wallenstein, were employed on this delicate mission. They were instructed to propose that the Emperor's son Ferdinand, King of Hungary, should remain with the army and learn the art of war under Wallenstein. "No, never," he exclaimed, "will I submit to a colleague in my office! No; not even with God himself would I share my command." However, after some hesitation, he accepted the office, but on terms

very derogatory to the Emperor. He received absolute power, almost independent of the Emperor, not only over the army, but also to treat, confiscate, punish, and reward, at will, in the countries of the empire. He stipulated for an indemnification for Mecklenburg, and also for the grant of an imperial hereditary province. In an incredibly short time he assembled an army of forty thousand men at Znaym, drove the Saxons from Bohemia, who had taken Prague and other cities, formed a junction with the troops of the Elector of Bavaria, and marched to Franconia, against Nuremberg. But Gustavus had already hastened to the aid of the Protestants, and Wallenstein, though his troops were superior in number to those of the king by one-half, avoided a battle. Both parties intrenched themselves. Gustavus waited for his approaching reinforcements; Wallenstein undertook no attack, and nothing but insignificant skirmishes occurred. As Wallenstein could not be made to risk a battle, Gustavus attempted to storm his camp, but his assaults were repeatedly repelled. The Swedish army now turned to the north of Suabia and made new conquests, while Wallenstein suddenly invaded the unoccupied Saxony to compel the Elector to secede from his alliance with Sweden. Gustavus Adolphus followed him thither, and the battle of Lützen took place. Wallenstein was compelled to retire with great loss. He himself was wounded, Pappenheim was killed, and all his artillery was taken. The Swedes, although their great king had fallen, maintained the field under Bernhard, Duke of Weimar. Wallenstein now withdrew to Bohemia, and caused a strict court-martial to be held at Prague over the officers and soldiers who were accused of not having done their duty in the battle: all those who were found guilty were executed.

Wallenstein's inactivity after the battle of Lützen shook the Emperor's belief in his invincibility. Bavaria and Spain remonstrated with the Emperor, and induced him to watch Wallenstein, and accordingly spies were sent into his camp. In order to hold some check over him, a Spanish army was raised in Milan under a Spanish general and marched into Germany. Wallenstein saw in this proceeding a blow aimed at himself, and, fearing that he might again be dismissed, he secured the attachment of his troops, discharged all his doubtful officers, and bound the others to himself by his liberality. At Münsterburg he met the Protestant allies,—Count Thorn, the old instigator of the war, on the part of Sweden; Arnheim and the Duke of Lauenburg for Saxony; and Bergedorf for Brandenburg. Wallenstein invited Count Arnheim to a conference, and told him that "he was come to conclude a lasting peace with the Swedes and the princes of the empire, to pay

the soldiers, and to satisfy every one; that if the Austrian court hesitated to confirm his agreement, he would unite with the allies, and (as he privately whispered to Arnheim) "hunt the Emperor to the devil." At the second conference he expressed himself more fully to Count Thorn, and engaged "that all the privileges of the Bohemians should be confirmed anew; the exiles recalled, and restored to their estates; the Jesuits banished; the Swedish crown indemnified by stated payments; and all the superfluous troops on both sides employed against the Turks. If I should obtain the crown of Bohemia," he added, "all the exiles will have reason to applaud my generosity; perfect toleration shall be established in the kingdom; the Palatine family shall be reinstated in their rights; and I will accept Moravia as a compensation for Mecklenburg. Then the allied armies would advance upon Vienna, sword in hand, and compel the Emperor to ratify the treaty." To be beforehand with the Emperor, he spoke to his officers about throwing up his command, when a universal cry was raised by his generals against this step. At length he agreed not to quit the service without their consent, if they would give him a written promise to adhere truly and firmly to him, and to shed their last drop of blood in his defense, so long as he should employ the army in the Emperor's service. This document was publicly read at an entertainment given by Field-Marshal Illo, and it was to be signed after they rose from the table. Illo did his utmost to stupefy his guests with strong potations, and it was not until he saw them affected with the wine that he presented the paper for signature. Most of them immediately signed their names: a few, more curious, or more distrustful, read the paper over again, and discovered, with astonishment, that its last clause had been omitted: Illo had substituted another copy. A scene of confusion ensued, but at length all signed it. Piccolomini and Gallas were present, and informed the Emperor of all the proceedings. Ferdinand immediately placed Wallenstein under the ban of the empire, and gave orders that he should be taken dead or alive. Wallenstein therefore proceeded to Eger, in order, it was supposed, to be nearer the frontiers and the Swedish troops. Nothing indeed seemed to remain for him but to seize on some fortified place like Eger and unite himself with the enemy. Some officers of the garrison at Eger, Colonel Leslie, an Irish Catholic, to whom Wallenstein confided everything, Butler, the commander of the fortress, and Lieutenant-Colonel Gordon, both Scotch Protestants (as every moment of delay seemed to increase the danger), conspired for Wallenstein's destruction. On February 25, 1634, at an entertainment given by the conspirators for

this purpose, the most confidential friends of Wallenstein, Illo, Will, Count Kinsky, Wallenstein's brother-in-law, Trezka, and his aid, Neumann, captain of horse, were surprised and murdered by Butler's dragoons, led by Major Geraldin. Devereux, an Irishman, at the head of six halberdiers, was intrusted with the execution of the Emperor's of six halberdiers, was intrusted with the execution of the Emperor's silence, with outstretched arms, the thrusts of the halberds in his breast, and expired without a groan. He was not yet fifty-two years old. Not an arm was raised to avenge his death. He was mourned only by his widow and child.* His cold, imperious temper had prevented him from gaining friends. The Emperor ordered three thousand masses to be said for the repose of his soul, but rewarded his assassins with gold chains, dignities, and estates. Gallas received the duchy of Friedland; Piccolomini had the principality of Nachod; but the major part of Wallenstein's possessions was retained by the Emperor himself. The value of Wallenstein's landed property alone was estimated at fifty millions of florins. His widow received the principality of Neuschloss; and his only surviving child, Maria Elizabeth, became shortly afterwards the wife of Count Kaunitz. The dramatic pieces of Schiller, Wallenstein's Camp, Piccolomini, and Wallenstein's Death, are among the finest productions of modern poetry. Some of the personages, however,—as Thekla and Max,—are mere creations of the poet's fancy.

Octavio Piccolomini was a descendant of one of the oldest and most distinguished families in Italy. He belonged to the family of Amalfi, and was born in 1599. He early entered the Spanish military service, and, after taking part in the Milanese campaigns, was sent with a Florentine cavalry regiment to aid the Emperor Ferdinand II., against the Bohemians. From the regiment of cuirassiers under his command he issued the death-dealing bullet to Gustavus Adolphus. In 1632 he was placed under the orders of Wallenstein, who, taking a great fancy to him, confided to him his most secret designs against the Emperor. Piccolomini revealed these secrets to the Emperor, and received, as a reward for his fidelity to Ferdinand, a part of Wallenstein's estates, and was also created Duke of Amalfi. Piccolomini greatly distinguished himself in the first battle of Nordlingen. The next year he was sent with twenty thousand men to aid the Spaniards in the Netherlands, and speedily drove out the French from that country. In 1640 he was sent against the Swedes, and was defeated by Torstensohn; but he was successful in Bohemia and the Palatinate. Returning to the Netherlands, he was not so successful as at first, because the prestige

of the Spanish infantry had been completely destroyed by the great Condé at Rocroi, in 1643. Still, he recovered himself again, both against the French and the Swedes, when he was summoned to Germany to encounter the victorious armies of the Protestant Union. The Peace of Westphalia, in 1648, put an end to his service in the army. He was made field-marshall, and sent as plenipotentiary to the Congress of Nuremberg, in 1649, and soon after created prince of the empire. The King of Spain conferred on him the order of the Golden Fleece and the fief of the duchy of Amalfi, which had previously belonged to his family. He died at Vienna in 1656, leaving no children.

And now to return to the Emperor Ferdinand II., at the beginning of the Thirty Years' War.

From the beginning of this war to the Peace of Westphalia scarcely anything great or remarkable occurred in the political world of Europe in which the Reformation had not an important share.

Had not Charles V., in the intoxication of success, made an attempt on the independence of the German states, a Protestant Union would hardly have rushed to arms in defense of freedom and belief; but for the ambition of the Guises, the Calvinists in France would never have beheld a Condé or a Coligny at their head; without the exaction of the tenth and twentieth penny, the See of Rome would never have lost the United Netherlands. Then there was no unanimity among the Protestants, for the Lutherans and Calvinists disliked each other almost as much as they did the Roman Catholics. The Austrian princes were all Catholics, but the great nobles and knights of Germany were chiefly Evangelical, and in the cities there were far more Protestants than Catholics.

Frederic of Bohemia was in a difficult situation, because, either from ignorance or from indifference, he failed completely in gaining the confidence of his new subjects. The Bohemian nobility availed themselves of their preponderating influence for their own advantage, throwing the burden of taxation upon the citizens and the rural districts. There was one general complaint against the imposts, and the oppression of the soldiery; the Calvinistic party, by their ecclesiastical domination, annoyed the Lutherans no less than the Catholics. Frederic was unable to govern these conflicting elements, and this weakness effected his ruin. When Maximilian hastened with Tilly and his army to Prague, the Bohemian forces entered the city and intrenched themselves on the Weissenberg (White Mountain) near the city. But before the intrenchments were finished, Maximilian advanced, gave

battle at once, and in less than an hour the fate of Bohemia was decided. The philosopher René Descartes fought under Tilly's banner in this assault. At the commencement of this battle Frederic was quietly seated at his dinner-table, which he did not leave; but when he arose and saw its termination from the ramparts, he lost all the little resolution he still retained. When summoned to surrender, he demanded twenty-four hours to deliberate; Maximilian gave him eight, and Frederic seized this opportunity to escape with his wife and children and officers in the night. His flight was so hurried that he left his crown behind him, and the Prince of Anhalt forgot his most private papers. "I know now what I am," exclaimed the unfortunate Frederic; "there are virtues which misfortunes only can teach us, and it is in adversity alone that princes learn to know themselves." On Maximilian's return to Munich, he wrote to the Pope, "I came, I saw, God conquered." Tilly followed after Frederic, and, in 1622, stormed and took Heidelberg, and sent its whole library to Pope Gregory XV. This library was returned by Pope Pius VII. in 1815.

Prague was not irretrievably lost when Frederic's pusillanimity led him to leave it. The light troops of Mansfeld (or Mansveldt) were still in Pilsen, and Bethlehem Gabor might have attacked Hungary. But Frederic had fled, Prague surrendered the next day, and that decided the fate of Bohemia, and put the Emperor Ferdinand in possession of all his dominions. The fate of Germany was now in the Emperor's hands. If he was just, there was an end of the war; if he was both magnanimous and just, punishment was at an end. Never was so great a decision resting on one single mind; never did the blindness of one man produce so much ruin. Ferdinand was still resolved to put down Protestantism; and war began again, which was soon to spread all over Europe. It is calculated that the number of families who were forced to leave Bohemia at this time amounted to thirty thousand. They for the most part fled to Saxony and Brandenburg.

The Elector of Saxony stood at the head of the German Protestants; but he cautiously avoided committing himself, and turned his attention to the improvement and interests of his own country. Count Mansfeld soon had an army of twenty thousand men, and declared that he would still maintain the cause of Frederic against the Emperor. He was first joined by George Frederic, Margrave of Baden-Durlach, and then by Duke Christian, brother of the reigning Duke of Brunswick, who came to his aid, with the motto, "God's friend, priests' foe." Bethlehem Gabor, the old enemy of Austria,

again attacked Hungary with success, and was crowned king at Presburg. The imperial general, Bucquoy, was forced to leave Bohemia, and was killed at the siege of Neuhausen. Frederic's courage now revived; he left Holland, and joined Mansfeld; but Mansfeld and the Margrave of Baden had separated, and the latter was defeated at Wimpfen, in 1622, by Tilly. The Duke of Brunswick was driven back to Alsace, then to Lorraine, and finally went to Holland, where he fell in love with the Electress-palatine, and, wearing her glove in his hat, returned to the war, after changing his motto to "All for God and her." The Emperor now gave the Palatinate and the electoral dignity to Maximilian I. of Bavaria. This opened the eyes of James I. of England, and the Protestant princes, aroused from their slumbers, entered into a confederacy with the King of Denmark, Christian IV., choosing him for their leader. Count Tilly, in the service of Bavaria, was on the frontiers of Lower Saxony, depriving the Protestants of their churches, driving away the Lutherans, and committing other acts of violence. As soon as he learned that the King of Denmark was to take the field, he continued his march along the left bank of the Weser, and made himself master of all the passes as far as Minden. Ferdinand now began to fear that he was too dependent on Bavaria; he therefore had recourse to Wallenstein, who raised an army, of which he took the command. Now for the first time there was an imperial army in the field, and this army marked its course with the most frightful devastation. Wallenstein did not join Tilly, because he was jealous of Tilly's fame, but simply made himself master of the Elbe. Mansfeld kept Wallenstein's army at bay, while Christian IV. watched the movements of Tilly, who had taken Göttingen, the key of Brunswick and Hesse. At the village of Lutter, on the Barenberg, in 1626, Christian was completely defeated by Tilly, and pursued into Holstein; and at the disgraceful peace of Lubeck, in 1629, he was compelled to promise that he would never again interfere in the affairs of the German Empire. The Emperor now was more powerful than ever, and the Protestant cause was in extreme jeopardy. A proof of this was the edict of restitution of 1629, by which the Protestants were to give up all the church estates which they had confiscated since the religious peace of 1555. Meantime, Wallenstein went to Berlin, reduced the Elector of Brandenburg to submission, overran Mecklenburg, subsisting his troops on the places he conquered, and laid siege to Magdeburg, which he was unable to conquer after seven months' hard fighting. However, his general success induced the Emperor to give him the title of Admiral of the North and Baltic Seas.

At this crisis appeared Gustavus Adolphus, King of Sweden, to whom Stralsund had applied for protection in 1628, when besieged by an army of one hundred thousand men under Wallenstein, and where the latter was humbled for the first time in his life. The clamors of the Catholic leaders now became so loud that the Emperor was obliged to dismiss Wallenstein from his service, and appoint Tilly to take his place. When Gustavus Adolphus, exasperated by various injuries received from the Emperor, and full of zeal for his religion, responded to the call for assistance from the Protestants, and, in 1630, landed in Pomerania, with an army of thirty thousand men, the Catholics ridiculed the "Snow King," as they called him, saying that he and his army would melt before they could reach Vienna. Tilly besieged and took Magdeburg before Gustavus could come to its aid; but having increased his strength by an alliance with France and several German princes, some of whom, as the Electors of Brandenburg and Saxony, were compelled to accede to it, he overtook Tilly and Pappenheim at Leipsic in 1631, and destroyed their army, and then town after town surrendered on his way until he reached the centre of Bavaria, where he again met Tilly in battle on the Lech. A ball struck Tilly, crushing his right leg, and he was carried to Ingolstadt, where he died at the age of seventy-three. Gustavus continued to traverse the country, with the sword in one hand and mercy in the other. Maximilian began now to feel the miseries he had inflicted upon others. Munich itself opened its gates to the invincible monarch of Sweden; and the fugitive Frederic, in the forsaken palace of his rival, consoled himself for a time for the loss of his dominions. Maximilian, however, had carried away nearly all his treasures. The magnificence of the palace astonished Gustavus, and he asked who was the architect. "No other," he was answered, "than the Elector himself." "I wish," said Gustavus, "that I had this architect to send to Stockholm." "That the architect will take good care to prevent," was the reply. On examining the arsenal, nothing was found but carriages stripped of their cannons. These had been so carefully concealed under the floor that they would not have been found had it not been for the treachery of a workman. "Rise up from the dead," said Gustavus, striking the floor, "and come to judgment." The floor was pulled up, and one hundred and forty pieces of cannon were discovered, which had been taken chiefly from the Palatinate and Bohemia. A treasure of thirty thousand gold ducats, concealed in one of the largest pieces, added to the pleasure which Gustavus received from this valuable acquisition. Meantime, the Elector of Saxony was on

his way to Prague. Wallenstein never troubled himself about it, offering neither the least advice nor the aid of his military experience, but quietly left the city. Prague was captured without a blow, and John George placed guards over Wallenstein's palace that it might not be plundered; and his estates were also left unharmed. The distressed condition of the empire was such at this period that the Emperor was forced to humble himself to ask Wallenstein to take command of the army again, and to give him almost unlimited power. No class in all the Austrian territories was exempt from heavy taxation in order to raise and equip an army. Philip III. had died in 1621, and was succeeded by his son, Philip IV., who, with the Emperor's son, Ferdinand, King of Hungary, agreed to furnish a large sum; and Wallenstein himself gave two hundred thousand dollars from his own income to hasten the armament. Wallenstein won over to his aid the Duke of Lorraine; Poland was to furnish him with Cossacks, and Italy with warlike stores. Before three months, the charm of his name had enabled him to collect an army of forty thousand men in Moravia, with which he recaptured Prague and marched into Saxony. Maximilian waited in Ratisbon for Wallenstein until he entered Saxony, and then joined him with twenty thousand men. Gustavus was in Nuremberg, and sent word to hasten his allies, the Duke of Weimar and the Landgrave of Hesse-Cassel, with all his generals, to bring forward their troops, for he had only sixteen thousand men. Wallenstein, on reviewing his army, said, "In four days it will be seen whether I or the King of Sweden is to be master of the world." When Wallenstein was urged to attack Gustavus, he replied, "Battles enough have been fought; it is now time to try another method." Meantime, he fortified his camp on the Pegnitz, opposite Nuremberg, in order to cut off supplies from Gustavus's army. Gustavus, on hearing that supplies were coming from Bavaria to his enemy, sent out a regiment of cavalry in the night, which defeated the imperial escort, and captured twelve thousand cattle and one thousand wagons loaded with bread, which, as they were not able to carry off, they burned. Soon after, Gustavus attacked Wallenstein in his camp, but was unsuccessful. Wallenstein's inactivity before Nuremberg excited a suspicion that he was unwilling to measure his power with the hero of the North. Gustavus left Nuremberg, and Wallenstein broke up his camp and followed him into Saxony. At Lützen, November 6, 1632, their armies met. Wallenstein had forty thousand men; the Swedes and Saxons only twenty-seven thousand. "God with us," was the war-cry of the Swedes; "Jesu Maria," that of the imperialists. Wallenstein's generals were Pappenheim, Picco-

Iomini, Isolani, with his Croats, Trezka or Terzky, Götz, and Coleredo. Gustavus Adolphus had Bernhard of Weimar, Gustavus Horn, the Duke of Saxe-Lauenburg, and General Steinbock. Gustavus Adolphus and Pappenheim lost their lives in this battle. After the fall of Gustavus, Bernhard took command of the troops, and fearfully avenged Gustavus's death. Wallenstein, by the haste in which he left the next day, openly confessed his defeat. Oxenstiern now took command of the Swedes; and a few weeks after the death of Gustavus Adolphus, sorrow ended the days of the unfortunate Frederic of Bohemia. Soon after the victory of Lützen, the Protestants drove the imperialists out of Saxony.

It was now a religious war no longer; every great leader began to fight for his own aggrandizement. The Saxons, to protect their own country, marched towards Silesia to aid Count Thorn against the Austrians. A part of the Swedish army, led by Bernhard, went into Franconia, where he would be near enough to defend his own duchy; and the other, led by George, Duke of Brunswick, to be within reach of his home, went into Westphalia. The conquests on the Lech and of the Danube were defended by the Palatine of Birkenfeld; the Swedish General Baner was to keep the Bavarians in check; and General Horn went into Alsace. There were three armies in Silesia,—a Saxon, under Count Arnheim and Swedish, under Count Thorn, and one of Brandenburg, the Duke of Lauenburg (a Danish duchy), and one under Bergedorf. The Saxons and Swedes hated one another; while Arnheim and Thorn contended for the chief command of all the Protestant troops, which numbered altogether only twenty-four thousand men. Wallenstein came to meet them with an army of forty thousand. The Emperor sent him word to fight; but Wallenstein repeatedly disregarded, or disobeyed, the Emperor's commands. For nine days Altringer, with a reinforcement to join it. Wallenstein, on his side, suspecting that he might again be displaced, called a meeting of his officers at Pilsen, in Bohemia, fifty-two miles southwest of Prague; and here the paper, of which we have already spoken, was drawn up for them to sign. Altringer, on hearing a rumor of the doings at Pilsen, feigned sickness, and stopped at the fortress of Frauenberg. Gallas and Piccolomini joined Wallenstein in order to be eye-witnesses of his proceedings and report them to the Emperor. Ferdinand immediately sent instructions to seize Wallenstein, Illo, and Terzky, and keep them

prisoners; but if that could not be done without danger, they were to be taken dead or alive. Wallenstein was anxious for the arrival of Altringer; Gallas offered to go for him and bring him to Pilsen. He went, but, instead of returning with him, sent him to Vienna, to report to the Emperor. Piccolomini now offered to go and hasten the return of Gallas, but went to place himself at the head of an army to march on Pilsen. Wallenstein was only waiting for their return to join the Protestant troops and fight the Emperor. At length, beginning to suspect something wrong, he left Pilsen with Terzky's regiment, and hastened to Egra, on the frontiers of Bohemia. An imperial decree had proclaimed him an outlaw, and did not fail of its effect; and an avenging Nemesis ordained that the ungrateful one should fall beneath the blow of ingratitude. Among his officers was one Leslie, whose fortune he had made, who was now called upon to execute the sentence against Wallenstein, and to earn the price of blood. No sooner had he reached Egra than he disclosed to Colonel Butler, the commander of the fortress, the treasonable designs of Wallenstein, and the Emperor's command to seize him. Wallenstein entered the castle of Egra (or Eger) feeling sure that he was among his best friends; but they, fearing some mischance, resolved to assassinate him. Colonel Butler gave an entertainment for all the officers, and all the guests, except Wallenstein, made their appearance. Illo, Terzky, Kinsky, and Neumann drank Wallenstein's health, not as a servant of the Emperor, but as a sovereign prince.

The wine opened their hearts, and Illo boasted that Wallenstein would soon be at the head of an army larger than any they had ever yet seen. "Yes," cried Neumann, "and then he hopes to bathe his hands in Austrian blood." The dessert was now brought in, and at a given signal the drawbridge was raised. In an instant the hall was filled with armed men, who, with the unexpected greeting, "Long live Ferdinand!" placed themselves behind the chairs of the doomed guests. Kinsky and Terzky were killed on the spot; Neumann was cut down as he attempted to escape; Illo killed two of his assailants before he fell pierced with ten wounds. While the banquet was progressing, Wallenstein was reading the stars with Seni. "The danger is not yet passed," said the astrologer, prophetically. "It is," replied Wallenstein; "but thou, friend Seni, thyself shalt soon be thrown into prison; that is also written in the stars." The astrologer took his leave, and Wallenstein retired to his room. Soon after, a captain of dragoons burst open his door, saying, "Art thou the villain who thinkest to deliver the Emperor's troops into the hands of the enemy

and to tear the crown from the head of his Majesty? Thou must die!" Wallenstein threw his arms wide open, received the halberds in his breast, and, without uttering a groan, fell weltering in his blood.

The Emperor's son, Ferdinand, was now made generalissimo, and Count Gallas commanded under him. Ratisbon was taken, then Donauwerth, and at Nordlingen, in 1634, the imperialists gained a great and decided victory over the Swedes, who were commanded by General Horn and Duke Bernhard of Weimar. Twenty thousand of their troops were either slain or made prisoners, and among the latter was General Horn himself, while Duke Bernhard with the remnant of his army retreated towards the Rhine. This defeat cost the Chancellor of Sweden the second sleepless night he had passed in Germany: the first was caused by the death of Gustavus Adolphus. And now the moment had arrived which Richelieu had been impatiently awaiting. He knew that nothing but the impossibility of saving themselves could ever induce the Protestants to support the pretensions of France upon Alsace. They had already taken possession of Metz, Toul, and Verdun, Treves was garrisoned by French soldiers, and Lorraine was in a manner conquered. The object of France was to make the Rhine the natural boundary between their country and Germany. After the great battle of Nordlingen, the Protestants sent an embassy to Richelieu, urging him to take Alsace and all the places on the Upper Rhine, which were the keys of Germany, under his protection. In return France was to make war on Spain; and the Spaniards soon gave them a good pretext. Making an inroad from the Netherlands, they fell upon Treves and cut the French garrison in pieces, after which Richelieu declared war, and began operations on the Rhine in 1635. After the battle of Nordlingen, which seemed to have annihilated the Swedish power in Germany, the Saxons seceded from the Swedes. Their Elector, John George, fearing that he might never recover his province of Lusatia, and might even lose still more, made peace with the Emperor at Prague in 1635. He received back Lusatia with a portion of the province of Magdeburg, and full liberty for religious worship for forty years. The open part that France now took in this contest brought back the balance of victory so far to the Protestant arms that when Ferdinand II. died, in 1637, he had given up the hope of ever attaining his objects. His reign is one of the most disastrous in history, for Germany owes him nothing but bloodshed and misery and desolation. According to his will, he was buried in the cathedral of Grätz, in which he had erected his own mausoleum,

near those of his father and mother. His first wife was Mary Anna of Bavaria, the mother of Ferdinand III.; his second was Eleanora of Mantua.

FERDINAND III., FERDINAND DER DRITTE. A.D. 1637-1657.

"Pietate et justitia." (Piety and justice.)

FERDINAND III., King of Hungary and Bohemia, and Archduke of Austria, the conqueror at the battle of Nordlingen, was elected and crowned Emperor at Ratisbon, in 1636, during his father's life. He was less bigoted than his father, for, having accompanied the armies after the death of Wallenstein, he had witnessed the miseries of war, and was therefore inclined for peace. But the conflicting interests of the belligerents hindered any unity of view. Duke Bernhard wished to enlarge his duchy,—perhaps to make it a kingdom; Sweden wanted possessions in Germany; and France wanted Alsace. Thus was this miserable war protracted, extending in circuit and increasing in devastation, owing to the growing licentiousness of the soldiery.

The activity of Duke Bernhard began again in 1638, when he left his winter quarters at Basle, took the forest towns of Laufenburg, Waldschut, and Sickingen, and began the siege of Rheinfeldt. The imperial general Savelli hastened to the relief of that important place, and forced Bernhard to retire with great loss. However, the duke returned the third day afterwards, defeated the imperialists, and took four of their generals prisoners,—Savelli, John de Werth, Enkeford, and Sperreuter. De Werth and Enkeford were sent by Richelieu's orders into France, to flatter the vanity of the



FERDINAND III.

French by the sight of such distinguished prisoners ; and the flags captured were carried in procession to Notre Dame. Bernhard now captured Roteln and Friburg, and then laid siege to Breisach, on the Rhine. This place was the key of Alsace, and the Italian army, under the Duke of Feria, hastened to its aid. The imperial general Goetz also hurried on with twelve thousand men and three thousand wagon-loads of provisions. Bernhard attacked him with such vigor at Wittenweyer that he lost all his provisions, and all his force except three thousand men. A similar fate at Ochsenfeld overtook the Duke of Lorraine, who with five or six thousand men advanced to the relief of the fortress ; but the fortress surrendered, in 1638, to its persevering and humane conqueror. Bernhard had no intention of surrendering his conquests to France, but was about to join Baner and carry the war into Austria, when a sudden death cut short his heroic career, in 1639, at Neuburg, on the Rhine, and when he was only in the thirty-sixth year of his age. He was the youngest of eight equally brave and warlike brothers. He himself declared his belief that he was poisoned, and his chaplain confirmed this suspicion in the sermon he preached over his remains. If this was the case, it must be attributed to the interference of France, for immediately after his death French agents visited his army, whose services they purchased with large sums, together with all places in its possession.

The present Emperor was less influenced by the Jesuits and Spain than his father ; more liberal towards the religious views of others, and therefore more likely to listen to reason. His father, during a reign of eighteen years, had never laid aside the sword or tasted the blessings of peace. Endowed with the qualities of a good sovereign, and by nature gentle and humane, we see him, from an erroneous idea of a monarch's duty, become at once the instrument and the victim of the evil passions of others, his good intentions frustrated, and the friend of justice converted into the oppressor of mankind, the enemy of peace, and the scourge of his people.

In the beginning of his reign fortune favored Ferdinand III. against the Swedes. Baner, the Swedish general, was nearly surrounded by the imperialists, from whom he escaped by pretending to march to Poland, but on a sudden, under cover of the night, turning towards the Oder, which he crossed, and reached Pomerania without loss. Baner at length terminated his career at Halberstadt, in May, 1641. He was fertile in expedients, which he planned with secrecy and executed with boldness ; greater in adversity than in prosperity, and never more formidable than when upon the brink of destruction. Nearly eighty thou-

sand men fell in the numerous battles which he fought ; and about six hundred hostile banners, which he sent to Stockholm, were the trophies of his victories.

Now appeared the new Swedish generalissimo, Leonard Torstensohn, a pupil of Gustavus Adolphus. Though a martyr to the gout, and confined to a litter, he surpassed all his opponents in activity, and his enterprise had wings, while his body was held with the most frightful fetters. He started to carry the war into Austria, in 1642, and the Archduke Leopold and Piccolomini hastened to intercept him at Leipsic. By a strange coincidence, the two armies met upon the very spot where, eleven years before, Gustavus Adolphus gained a decided victory. The Swedish generals threw their divisions with such impetuosity upon the left wing of the imperialists before it was completely formed, that all the cavalry which covered it were dispersed and rendered unserviceable. The left wing of the Swedes was threatened with a similar fate, when the victorious right came to their assistance. The Austrians were taken in flank and rear, and the Swedes gained a complete victory, though with the loss of three thousand men and two of their best generals. More than five thousand imperialists were left on the field, and as many were taken prisoners. They lost their whole artillery of forty-six field-pieces, the silver plate and portfolio of the archduke, and all the baggage of the army. Leipsic surrendered three weeks after, and was obliged to clothe the Swedish troops anew, and to purchase an exemption from plunder by a contribution of three hundred thousand rix-dollars.

Richelieu died in 1642, and Mazarin succeeded him. Richelieu had employed his army mostly against the Spaniards. Mazarin turned his against the Emperor. Condé, who had besieged and taken Thionville, and defeated the Spaniards at Rocroi, in 1643, was now sent into Alsace, and, going into winter-quarters, was surprised and vanquished without firing a cannon. As Denmark was in danger of being sacrificed to Sweden, the Emperor sent Gallas to its aid ; but Torstensohn met him and drove him along the whole course of the Elbe. He retreated to Magdeburg, and the cavalry, trying to escape into Silesia, was overtaken and routed by Torstensohn at Jüterbog. From this expedition Gallas brought back but a few thousand of the formidable force with which he had set out, and the reputation of being a consummate master in the art of ruining an army. Torstensohn followed up his successes until Denmark was compelled to make peace and Saxony to sign a truce. In 1644, Condé and the great Turenne appeared before Freiburg, which the Bavarian general Mercy had taken. In vain was all

the impetuous valor of the French, and after a loss of six thousand men they were forced to retreat. Mazarin shed tears over this great loss, which Condé, who had no feeling for anything but glory, disregarded. The Bavarians, however, were so disabled by this murderous battle that they were unable to prevent Condé from taking Speyer, Worms, Mannheim, and Mayence. The Emperor now offered greater concessions; France became more manageable; and Sweden grew more bold towards these two crowns. Torstensson retired to private life, in order to restore his shattered health, and Gustavus Wrangel, a worthy successor, was appointed commander-in-chief, in 1646. Condé and Turenne, now victorious and now defeated, held also in check by Mazarin, who was jealous of their fame, at length received permission to unite their forces with Wrangel's. They marched into Bavaria with the intention to conquer Maximilian and thus deprive the Emperor of his first and last ally. Brandenburg, under its great Elector, decided to remain neutral; Saxony had been forced into neutrality also; the war with France prevented the Spaniards from assisting the Emperor; the peace with Sweden had removed Denmark from any part in this war, and Poland had been disarmed by a long truce. Maximilian could not help himself; and, when he found they would not include the Emperor in the truce he was trying to make with them, he was obliged to comply with whatever terms they proposed. The Emperor had bought off Ragotzki, the successor of Bethlehem Gabor, who, with his troops, had been plundering in Austria. Turenne marched into Würtemberg and forced the Landgrave of Darmstadt and the Elector of Mayence to remain neutral, while Wrangel, with his Swedes, went to Bregenz, on the frontiers of Suabia, where all the peasants and the inhabitants of the surrounding villages had taken refuge in that natural fortress and the key to the Tyrol and Italy. The Emperor had only twelve thousand men; and his two best generals, Werth and Mercy, having been killed, he was obliged to intrust the command of them to a Calvinist, the Hessian deserter Melander. Peter Eppelmann, Count of Holzapfel, who took the name of Melander, first entered the service of William of Hesse-Cassel. When asked to enter the Emperor's service, he replied, "I cannot do it now, for I have given my word to another; and I am a German, and a Westerwalder to boot, which is as good as two Germans." Although a Protestant and a patriot, when he saw the real aim of the French and Swedes in 1645, he went over to the Emperor.

This war had been from the beginning remarkable for the sudden changes it displayed; so, too, now when it seemed nothing could save

the Emperor, state policy came to his relief. France, jealous of Sweden's predominance in Germany, which would be destructive to her own interests, declined to take advantage of the distresses of Austria, and therefore sent Turenne's army to the Netherlands. Wrangel marched towards Bohemia and laid siege to Egra. To relieve this fortress, the Emperor put himself at the head of his last army, but on his arrival the fortress was already in the possession of the Swedes. Ferdinand had for some time been trying to seduce the generals of the Bavarian army to enter his service; but Maximilian discovered it in time to prevent it, and as the truce had not afforded him the advantages he had expected, and as he was also too wise a statesman to listen to the voice of passion, he again joined the Emperor, and compelled Wrangel to leave the kingdom. The ruin of the Swedes would have been inevitable had Maximilian overtaken them before they reached Turenne; but the same considerations which had just saved the Emperor now proved the salvation of the Swedes. Amidst all the fury of conquest, cold calculations of prudence guided the course of the war, and the vigilance of the different courts increased as the prospect of peace approached. Maximilian was afraid that if the Emperor should gain a decided advantage it might delay the chances of a general peace, and for this reason ceased to pursue the Swedes.

Melander, prevented by the Bavarians from pursuing Wrangel, went into Hesse out of hatred to his former sovereign, but soon had reason to repent that he had listened to the dictates of revenge rather than of prudence, for Wrangel's forces had so exhausted the resources of that country that he was obliged to retreat to the Danube. France ordered Turenne to remain on the Rhine, and Wrangel revenged himself by drawing the cavalry of Weimar into his service. After this Turenne was permitted to join the Swedes, when they drove Melander along the Danube, and at Susmarshausen he was mortally wounded. Gronsfeld, the Bavarian commander, posted himself on the Lech, but he was as unfortunate as Tilly; for Wrangel and Turenne, choosing the same place to cross the river which Gustavus Adolphus did, obtained a glorious victory. Bavaria was a second time overrun, and Maximilian withdrew to Salzburg. The river Inn overflowed and saved him and Austria. Ferdinand had no longer a general to be matched with a Wrangel or a Turenne, therefore recalled Piccolomini from the Netherlands. Koenigsmark, a Swede, with his flying corps advanced towards Bohemia, where Ernest Odowalski, a disbanded captain, who, after being disabled in the imperial service, had been dismissed without a pension, laid before him a plan for surprising Prague. Koenigsmark

accomplished this bold enterprise, and won the reputation of closing the Thirty Years' War by this last brilliant achievement. This decisive stroke, which vanquished the Emperor's irresolution, cost the Swedes the loss of only one man. The troops on both sides went into winter quarters, and soon after intelligence arrived that peace had been signed at Münster, October 24, 1648.

PEACE OF WESTPHALIA.

Negotiations for peace were begun in 1641, and the preliminaries were agreed upon at Hamburg; nevertheless, the actual negotiations did not begin until 1644. The ambassadors of Austria, the German Empire, and Sweden met at Osnabrück; those of the Emperor, France, and other powers met at Münster; but the articles adopted in both formed one treaty. This division was intended partly to prevent disputes on etiquette between France and Sweden, and partly because Sweden refused to have anything to do with the papal nuncio, who was sent to assist in the negotiations. Quarrels on points of etiquette, carried to the most ridiculous extreme, prevented the opening of the congress for a long time. The ministers of princes claimed the title of *excellency*, like those of the electors; and a round table was adopted for the session, in order to evade other punctilios.

By this peace, the sovereignty of the members of the empire was acknowledged, and they could conclude treaties among themselves, and with foreign powers; but nothing was to be done to the detriment of the Emperor or the empire. Their consent was also necessary to enable the Emperor to put any member under the ban of the empire.

The electoral family was restored to the Palatinate, and the eighth electorship was created for it, with a proviso, however, that this should be abolished in case the Bavarian house should become extinct (as actually happened in 1777), since the Palatine house would then recover the Bavarian electorate.

Sweden received Hither Pomerania, Bremen, Verden, Wismar, and five million German dollars, as an indemnification for her expenses in this war.

France received the bishoprics of Metz, Toul, and Verdun, as much of Alsace as had belonged to Austria, the Sundgau, and the important fortresses of Breisach and Philipsburg; besides which, Germany was forced to destroy a great number of fortifications along the Upper Rhine, in order that the French army might have an open and free passage into Germany. The French envoys declared openly, in the

excess of their joy, that France had never concluded a peace upon such advantageous terms.

Brandenburg received the secularized bishoprics of Halberstadt, Minden, Camin, and the reversion of Magdeburg.

Mecklenburg received the secularized bishoprics of Schwerin and Ratzeburg.

Hanover, alternately with a Catholic bishop, received the bishopric of Osnabrück, and some convents.

Hesse-Cassel, which from the commencement of the war had adhered firmly to Sweden, and whose beautiful and talented landgravine, Amelia, succeeded in captivating all hearts, received through the mediation of Sweden and France, although it had suffered no loss, the abbey of Hirschfeld, and six hundred thousand rix-dollars. Bernhard of Weimar would gladly have married Amelia.

The United Netherlands were acknowledged independent.

Switzerland had maintained a prudent neutrality throughout all this war; and in this peace the complete separation of Switzerland from the German Empire was solemnly acknowledged.

The Calvinists received equal rights with the Lutherans; the princes of the empire were bound not to prosecute or oppress those of their subjects whose religious faith differed from their own; and the Protestants were allowed to retain all the ecclesiastical property they had possessed in 1624 in land and churches. After all impediments in the way of the system of toleration had been overcome, the ambassadors embraced one another with tears of joy.

Pope Innocent X. in vain protested against the secularization of bishoprics and abbeys.

But this peace gave the death-blow to the political unity of Germany. Every German prince and petty monarch now thought only of his own house,—and there were three hundred sovereigns in Germany. The empire lost a territory of forty-five thousand square miles, and four million five hundred thousand inhabitants.

The Emperor Ferdinand III. lived nine years after the Peace of Westphalia, and presided over the diet of the empire, 1653–1654,—the last diet presided over by an Emperor in person,—and made many beneficial and important alterations in the administration of justice. He had already procured the decision of the princes in favor of his son Ferdinand as his successor on the imperial throne, when unfortunately the young prince, who had excited the most sanguine hopes, and towards whom all eyes were turned in confidence, died in 1654 of the smallpox. The Emperor then tried to secure the election of his

second son, Leopold, although he was far from possessing the capacity of his deceased brother, but died before he had attained this object. Shortly after concluding an alliance with Poland against Sweden, in 1657, Ferdinand died and was buried at Vienna. His first wife was Mary Anna of Austria, of the Spanish line, the mother of Ferdinand and Leopold I.; his second was Mary Leopoldine of Austria; and his third, Eleanore of Mantua.

CONTEMPORARIES OF THE EMPERORS MATTHIAS, FERDINAND II., AND FERDINAND III. 1612-1657.

James I. of England had sagacity enough to discover the Gunpowder Plot, which raised the opinion of his wisdom among the people; but the folly with which he gave himself up to his favorites quickly undeceived the nation. During his reign commerce increased greatly, many voyages of discovery were made, and the first English colonies were established in America. A new translation of the Bible from the original text was made by fifty-four learned men, and is still regarded as the standard Bible.

Anne of Denmark, wife of James I., was undeniably inferior, both in education and intellect, to most of the queens who preceded her. She had been Queen of Scotland fourteen years before she became Queen of Great Britain. Her chief fault was a passionate temper, which rendered her liable to fits of petulance, like a spoiled child. Her affections, however, were enduring and tenacious, and when once she formed an esteem for any one, she never deserted that person. She died in the forty-sixth year of her age. Her most talented child was Prince Henry of Wales, who, if he had lived, would have prevented the execution of Sir Walter Raleigh, for whom he had great esteem. Anne left but two living children, Charles I. and Elizabeth, Queen of Bohemia, both singularly unfortunate.

Charles I. was distinguished for the virtues which ornament and dignify private life. He sought only to retain what his predecessors had possessed. It was his misfortune to occupy the throne at a time when the representative system necessarily clashed with the claims of royal prerogative, and he fell a victim, if not a martyr, to the crisis. He was beheaded in 1649.

Henrietta Maria, daughter of Henry IV. of France, was the wife of Charles I. She gave offense not only on account of being a Catholic, but also by refusing to be crowned by a Protestant. The king was therefore crowned without her. Her happiness with her husband and children was of short duration. Rebellion drove her to the Continent

for men and money to assist her husband. Being defeated on her return, she fled to France, and took refuge in Paris, where some of her children joined her. During the disturbances of a political faction called the Fronde, they were in the greatest destitution. She died at her favorite residence at Colombe, in 1669, aged sixty-one. Her children were Charles II.; James, Duke of York, afterwards James II.; the Princess Elizabeth, who died of grief at Carisbrooke Castle, in 1650, aged fifteen; Mary, who married the Prince of Orange; Henry, Duke of Gloucester, who died of the smallpox, in 1660; and Henrietta, who married her cousin Philippe, Duke of Orleans.

Oliver Cromwell, Lord Protector of the Commonwealth of England, governed England after the execution of Charles I., and spread his authority over all the British dominions. He levied armies, maintained fleets, contributed to the prosperity of the country by managing the finances with economy and exactness, and under his rule swift retribution followed any indignity or injury to Englishmen, no matter by whom or where perpetrated. His foreign policy secured to England a position among nations more commanding than any she had ever before occupied. He died in 1658, having ruled England nine years. His son Richard resigning the protectorate, Charles Stuart was recalled to the throne of his ancestors in 1660.

Mary de Medici, when she became Regent of France, allowed Concino Concini and his wife, Eleanora Galigaï, to obtain possession of the reins of government; and in 1613 Concini was made a marshal and prime minister by the queen. He purchased the marquisate of Ancre, in Picardy, and took from it his title of Marshal d'Ancre. In 1615, Louis XIII., who was then fifteen years of age, went to Bordeaux to receive his young wife, Anne of Austria, daughter of Philip III. of Spain, accompanied by his favorite companion, Albert de Luynes, who pointed out to him the errors of his mother's government, and the odious power of Concini and his wife. Louis replied that not a word could be said against them without making his mother angry. In fact, Mary de Medici would never suffer remonstrance or opposition, without flying into such a passion as rendered her capable of any extravagance. In 1617, the king, weary of the insupportable despotism of the Marshal d'Ancre, gave the fatal order for his fall, and he was assassinated in the Louvre, in open day, and his body privately buried; but he was so hated by the people that his body was taken up, dragged through Paris, and burned before the statue of Henry IV. His wife was also executed soon afterwards, and her son, deprived of rank and property, was driven from the country. The queen-regent was then

ordered to withdraw from court, and all the ministers appointed by Concini precipitately retired, except Richelieu, Bishop of Luçon, who was the queen's chaplain, and who, probably seeking his own advantage, determined to remain with Mary in her misfortune, and accompanied her to Blois. However, he received an order to quit her, and accordingly retired to his bishopric of Luçon, and was afterwards exiled to Avignon. The honor of delivering the queen-mother was reserved for one of her own countrymen, named Ruccelai, and Mary's faithful friend, the Duke d'Épernon. When the news of her escape reached the court, she was summoned to give up the duke; but she replied that she would never abandon a man who had risked all to restore her to liberty, and that she would take the whole evil upon herself. Richelieu now offered her his services, and as this circumstance appears to have been known to the king, it proves that Richelieu must have entertained secret intelligence with the court; and he laid the foundation of his fortune by his efforts to conciliate the king and his mother.

On meeting, the mother and son expressed more surprise than affection. "Monsieur my son, how much you have grown since I saw you!" "I have grown, madame," replied the king, "for your service." They passed three days together, but Mary enjoyed more of her daughter-in-law's caresses than of her son's society, which she would have preferred. "How," she one day asked the Prince of Piedmont, "can I obtain his good graces?" He replied, "Love what he loves; for those two words contain all the law and the prophets." The advice was good, and Mary owed all her unhappiness to the neglect of it. Shortly after this the queen-mother left Tours for Angers, hoping soon to be recalled to Paris. The famous friar Joseph du Tremblay first appeared at this time, and was the secret agent between De Luynes and Richelieu. Mary at length returned to Paris, united her court with Anne of Austria, and skillfully recovered her influence over the king. As long as Richelieu had been of service to her, Mary protected and assisted in aggrandizing him; but when she saw the power of this Colossus she was afraid of her work; his influence excited her resentment, which grew at length into hatred, and she determined on his fall. Her enmity broke out on his return from La Rochelle, in 1626; but Richelieu foresaw it, and Mary de Medici was the only victim on the "journée des dupes" (day of dupes). Yielding to her solicitations, Louis, on leaving Paris for Versailles, promised his mother to dismiss the cardinal, who followed the king to that place, and so artfully insinuated himself into the good graces of the king that he determined to retain

him in his service; and when Mary arrived at Versailles and was informed of what had taken place, and also refusing to be reconciled to the cardinal, she was sent to the château de Compiègne, in 1631, from whence she escaped to the Low Countries, where she was kindly received by the Archduchess Isabella; but in 1638 the war between Spain and France prevented her remaining there. She next sought an asylum in England with her daughter Henrietta. Although she met with a kind reception, the troubles there prevented her stay, and she went next to Holland; but the fear of disobliging the cardinal rendered the government deaf to her prayers, and she was robbed of that retreat. Last of all she chose the imperial town of Cologne for her place of residence; it was free and neutral, and there she at last found refuge.

The king, whose heart was naturally good, but weak, would not have suffered his mother to remain in exile and abandonment but for the insinuations of the ambitious cardinal, who persuaded him that she favored and conspired with the enemies of France. Her goods were confiscated, her remittances stopped, and she was obliged to dismiss all her faithful servants. During the severe winter of 1642, which was the last of her existence, she was not even provided with fuel, but was reduced to the necessity of burning tables, boxes, and chairs. The vexations and privations which resulted from her poverty brought on a dropsical complaint in the chest, which terminated her deplorable career at the age of sixty-seven. She was attended in her last moments by the Elector of Cologne, and her body was taken to Saint Denis, where it was buried by the side of Henry IV.

In the protection which Mary de Medici afforded to literature and the fine arts, she proved herself a true Medici. Some proofs of her portrait, which she engraved herself, and gave to her painter, Philip de Champagne, are still in preservation. She recompensed Malherbe, encouraged the Chevalier Marini, and built the beautiful palace of the Luxembourg, in which she resided until her banishment. This residence, erected after the plan of the palace of Pitti, in Florence, reminded Mary of her own beautiful country. She therefore took delight in embellishing it, and commissioned Rubens to execute the numerous allegorical paintings which have so long decorated its galleries. She also built the aqueduct at Arcueil, and three hospitals, founded the convent of the Filles du Calvaire, and planted the promenade known by the name of the *Cours la Reine*. She had three sons: the eldest was Louis XIII.; the second, Gaston, Duke of Orleans; the third died young; and three daughters, one of whom married Victor Amadée, Duke of Savoy; Elizabeth was the wife of Philip IV. of

Spain; and Henrietta Maria married the unfortunate Charles I. of England.

Armand Jean Duplessis, Duke of Richelieu, received the cardinal's hat in 1622, and, in spite of the dislike of Louis XIII., rose to the premiership. The policy which secured for him a place among the greatest statesmen in modern history may be summed up in three principal designs, combined for the consolidation of the monarchy and the greatness of France: 1, the consummation of the work of Louis XI., by the extinction of the last remains of feudalism and the full subjection of the high nobility to the royal power; 2, the subjugation of Protestantism in France, where it had assumed a character as much political as religious, threatening to create a state within the state; 3, the abasement of the House of Austria, by opposing its ambition for universal domination, and consequently the elevation of the power of France abroad on the ruins of her formidable rival. As a preliminary step, in 1626 he took from Austria the passes of Valtellina, to secure them to Switzerland, and the same year he set on foot the war against the Protestants and England, which extended to them her protection. The two leaders of the French Protestants, Henri de Rohan and his brother, the Duke de Soubise, went to London in 1627 to negotiate a close alliance with the Duke of Buckingham, who in 1628 directed to their support a fleet of one hundred sail, with a land force of seven thousand men. The capture of the island of Ré was the object of their ambition. But the governor, Toiras, with limited resources, opposed so brilliant a defense that it became necessary to raise the siege. Encouraged by this first success, Richelieu determined to strike at once a decisive blow, by taking from the Protestants their most important stronghold. The siege of Rochelle was begun in earnest, and prosecuted with an activity to which the presence of the cardinal himself added a new impulse. The besieged made so desperate a resistance that the population of the city was reduced by war and famine from thirty thousand to five thousand souls when they surrendered, November 1, 1628. This event, followed by the treaty of Alais and the Edict of Nîmes, put an end to the political power of Protestantism in France, and one of Richelieu's designs was accomplished. The other, against the high nobility, had been already accomplished by the imprisonment in the castle of Vincennes of the Marshal d'Ornano, confidant and favorite of Gaston of Orleans, brother of the king. On hearing of this bold measure, the lords hastened to Fontainebleau, and laid a plot against the life of the cardinal, who, being informed of it, decided at once to make such an

example as would strike terror into the hearts of his enemies. The victim was the Count de Chalais, of the House of Perigord, a giddy young man, led away far more by his love for the Duchess of Chevreuse than by any political hatred. Chalais was arrested, thrown into a dungeon in the castle of Amboise, and beheaded, in 1626. To put a stop to the bloody mania which threatened to deprive France of the flower of its young noblemen, the penalty of death had been proclaimed against those who should fight duels. In defiance of this ordinance, in 1627, two young nobles of the highest rank fought in Paris, in the Place Royale itself,—François de Montmorenci and the Count des Chapelles,—and both paid with their lives the penalty of this offense against the royal authority. The consolidation of the government at home did not divert the cardinal from carrying out his plans abroad. Charles de Gonzague, Duke of Nevers, legitimate heir to the duchy of Mantua, without any help but the protection of France, was maintained in possession of his inheritance by force of arms. This war set Mary de Medicis and Anne of Austria still more against Richelieu, and he was informed of his dismissal. The courtiers flocked at once around the new power, zealous to be the first to insult the fallen minister in the saloons of the Luxembourg palace, where both queens were exulting in their triumph. But in the mean time Richelieu went to Versailles, where the king had gone to hunt. An immediate reconciliation took place between the minister and the monarch, of which the report spread about in Paris soon terrified the over-hasty flatterers, and made them vacate the Luxembourg even quicker than they had filled it. This event is known in the history of France under the name of *la journée des dupes*.

In the Thirty Years' War, Richelieu did not hesitate to take sides with the Protestants. To him the interests of the Church were second to those of the state. He was a minister and statesman more than a cardinal, and he assisted Gustavus Adolphus by subsidies in his war against the House of Austria. When Gustavus fell at Lützen, in 1632, Richelieu contrived to secure to France new possessions on the left bank of the Rhine, and the services of Duke Bernhard of Saxe-Weimar and his army. Indefatigable in his vast designs so long as anything remained undone, he now declared war against Spain, and was himself present at the capture of Perpignan. Austria was now humiliated, Portugal was separated from Spain, French influence predominated in Catalonia, England was in full revolution, and France quiet and prosperous. The last conspiracy against the cardinal resulted in the execution of the young Marquis de Cinq-Mars and his friend De Thou,

at Lyons, in 1642. Shortly after, when his unrivaled fortune was at its zenith, he died at the age of fifty-seven, in that truly royal palace which to the present day bears testimony to his grandeur. Besides the political successes of Richelieu, the period of his rule was one of great literary distinction. Corneille, Descartes, and Pascal were his contemporaries, and he himself was the founder of the French Academy. He also founded the *Jardin du Roi*, now the *Jardin des Plantes*, and enlarged the Sorbonne.

Louis XIII. did not long survive his ambitious minister. A slow fever hung upon him, and he felt his strength decay. The dauphin was not yet five years old, and he hoped by a distribution of power to secure a quiet minority. He appointed his wife, Anne of Austria, regent; but provided that all affairs should be determined in council, of which he appointed his brother Gaston, Duke of Orleans, the chief. This being done, he prepared for death with composure, and when the physicians told him that he had but two or three hours to live, he expressed the greatest satisfaction. He died May 24, 1643, in the forty-second year of his age.

Julius Mazarin, first minister of Louis XIV., and cardinal, was born of a noble family at Piscini, in Abruzzo; but, according to Flassan, he was born at Rome, in 1602. He studied law at the Spanish university of Alcalá de Henares; after leaving which he entered the military service of the Pope. He was a captain in a corps in the Valtelline, and was commissioned by General Torquato Conti to negotiate the truce at Rivalta, in 1630, between the French, Spanish, and imperial generals. The nuncio Bagni represented him as a distinguished man to Louis XIII. and Cardinal Richelieu. When the war broke out respecting the succession of the duchy of Mantua, Mazarin, as papal minister, repaired to Louis XIII. at Lyons, and had a long conference with Cardinal Richelieu. Having failed in his attempts to effect a peace, he returned to Italy. The French were on the point of renewing hostilities, when Mazarin effected a truce between them and the Spanish forces. On the expiration of the truce, he proposed to the French to consent to a peace, which they refused except on the hardest conditions. He induced the Spanish general to agree to them, and returned on horseback at full speed between the two armies, who were already engaged, waving his hat and exclaiming, "Peace! peace!" while the bullets were whizzing around his head. The action was suspended and peace established. By this negotiation Mazarin gained the friendship of Richelieu, and in 1641 Louis XIII. induced Urban VIII. to create him cardinal, whereupon he was immediately appointed

a member of the council of state. Richelieu on his death-bed recommended him so strongly to the king that in his will Louis nominated him a member of the council of regency. After the death of Louis, in 1643, Queen Anne of Austria, as regent, gave him the post of first minister. The beginning of Anne's regency was exceedingly brilliant, in consequence of the victories gained by the Prince of Condé, particularly that of Rocroi, in 1646. But these fair days did not last long. Mazarin was hated as a foreigner, and his person, his manners, his pronunciation, were made subjects of ridicule. The people, moreover, groaned under the burden of taxes. These circumstances led to the formation of a political faction called the *Fronde*. The most active in exciting discontent was the Bishop de Retz, afterwards a cardinal, and a writer of memoirs. He was a man of a restless, bustling, intriguing, and seditious character, who seems to have been actuated solely by a love of mischief-making. The ladies took the lead in these troubles. Mademoiselle de Montpensier, cousin to the king, and the Duchess de Longueville, sister to the great Condé, were the active leaders on the part of the *Fronde*. To please these ladies many of the nobles joined the *Fronde*. The war continued four years, the nobles changing sides as interest or inclination prompted. Condé and Turenne were constantly opposed to each other, and yet were constantly changing sides. Mazarin at one time was at court, and at another was in exile, yet governed the queen (to whom it was said he was secretly married) as absolutely when in one place as in the other. This war, which began in 1648, ended in 1654, when Mazarin returned to Paris, and was again intrusted with the reins of government. Thus the royal power came forth victorious from this long contest, which, though it seemed to commence for the popular interests, gradually changed into a miserable party strife among the nobles. The only vestiges of the troubles that remained were the terms *petit-maitre*, applied to overbearing, ill-educated young men, and *frondeur*, applied to one who censures the government. Condé, who had fled to the Spanish Netherlands, was declared guilty of treason; and Mazarin prosecuted the war against Spain with redoubled zeal, and for that end formed an alliance, in 1656, with Cromwell. By this means he obtained for France an honorable peace, concluded by the treaty of the Pyrenees, in 1659. On the part of France, it was agreed that Louis XIV. should marry the daughter of the King of Spain, should renounce all claims to the Spanish throne in case that king should die without male heirs, and should pardon Condé.

Mazarin died in 1661. He had done little good for the nation he governed; but it would be unjust to refuse him the credit he deserves

for the treaties of Westphalia and the Pyrenees. The title of peacemaker is a glorious one, and the war to which he put an end had caused untold miseries, devastations, and massacres. While minister he accumulated over two hundred million livres, in doing which he often made use of means unworthy of an honorable man. He left as his heir the Marquis de la Meilleraie, who married his niece, Hortensia Mancini, and assumed the title of Duke of Mazarin. The talents of Mazarin were not sufficiently prominent to conceal his ambition, cupidity, timidity, artfulness, and meanness. His greatest merit was his skill in diplomacy. He added Alsace to France, and perhaps anticipated that France might some day give laws to Spain.

Philip III., the imbecile and fanatical King of Spain, left the reins of government to his favorite, the Duke de Lerma, who squandered the revenues of the state, and drove the last of the Moriscoes, some six hundred thousand in number, out of Spain. Under his son, Philip IV., who reigned from 1621 until 1665, Portugal recovered its independence; Catalonia was devastated for ten years by a civil war; the Dutch infested the Spanish possessions, especially Peru; three fleets were destroyed by gales, diseases, and the enemy; in 1634 the Protestant Netherlands were abandoned forever; insurrections broke out in Naples and Sicily; and the enmity between Olivarez, the Spanish minister, and Richelieu, involved Spain in a war with France, by which the former lost Roussillon. It was the insolence of Olivarez that brought matters to a crisis in Portugal; and in 1640, after a forced union of one hundred and sixty years, Portugal was freed, by a bold and successful conspiracy of the nobles, from all connection with Spain, and the Duke de Braganza, a descendant of the old royal family, placed on the throne, under the title of John IV.

ARTISTS.

The earlier specimens of painting in Spain resemble in style the works of the old German painters. The Spanish art of the sixteenth century was modeled on that of Italy, Titian and Raphael being the masters studied; but when works of the Spanish school are spoken of, those executed in the seventeenth century are always understood to be referred to, as it was then that Spanish art became entirely national in feeling and style, and that is the period in which the best works of the school were produced. The two most distinguished Spanish painters are Don Diego Velasquez, who lived in 1599-1660, and Bartolomé Esteban Murillo, in 1618-1682. The others of note are Alonso Cano, Francisco Zurbano, and Claudio Coello. No name of a

Spanish painter of eminence occurs after the close of the seventeenth century.

Very soon after the period when the Eclectic and Naturalist schools arose in Italy, a revival of art also occurred in the Netherlands. Two important schools of art were established by this movement,—the Flemish and the Dutch. The Flemish school flourished in Brabant, where the Roman Catholic faith—then making strenuous efforts to oppose the Reformed religion—still retained and actively employed art in its service. The Dutch school flourished in Protestant Holland, where the artist, having to trust to private encouragement, painted, for the most part, familiar subjects of every-day life; and in place of altar-pieces for churches, produced large historical and allegorical pictures for palaces, portraits, genre pictures, landscapes with and without figures, sea-pieces, battle-pieces, compositions representing hunting, animals, game, festive scenes, etc. The catalogue of the names of the able artists of these two schools is long.

In the Flemish school, those who stand highest are Peter Paul Rubens, Anthony Van Dyck, David Teniers the Younger, and F. Snyders. All these lived between 1577 and 1690.

In the Dutch school, between the years 1605 and 1691, the most eminent were Rembrandt, Vanderhelst, Albert Cuyp, Terburgh, A. van Ostade, Ruysdael, Hobbema, Potter, Du Jarden, Jan Steen, Metzu, F. Mieris, W. van de Velde, A. van der Neer, and P. Wouvermans.

Painting had been practiced for a long time in France; but there, as in Spain and in Britain, the marked preference shown in early times by the sovereigns of the country for the works of foreign artists, their undervaluing native talent, and their directing it into a channel supplied from a foreign source, had the effect of neutralizing it as the exponent of national feeling. Francis I. is acknowledged to have been a patron of art; he had a desire to possess fine works, and he liberally rewarded able artists, but his patronage was confined almost entirely to foreigners.

SETTLEMENTS IN AMERICA.

In 1607, under James I. of England, the colony of Virginia was founded at Jamestown. In 1614, John Smith explored the coast from Penobscot to Cape Cod, and named the country New England. In 1620, the Plymouth Company landed one hundred English Puritans within the bay of Cape Cod, and founded the colony of Plymouth. The oldest towns in New Hampshire, Portsmouth and Dover, were founded by Gorges and Mason, in 1623, and in 1626 the first settlement was made in Maine. The Massachusetts Bay Colony founded Charles-

town in 1628, Salem in 1629, and Boston in 1630. The colony of Maryland received a charter securing civil and religious freedom for every sect in 1632, and made their first settlement at St. Mary's, in 1634. Sixty persons from Massachusetts went to the valley of the Connecticut in 1635, where settlements had already been begun at Hartford, Windsor, and Wethersfield, and the year following, more emigrants arriving, a form of government was adopted, and the Colony of Connecticut was established. In 1638, New Haven was founded,—the Bible, "the perfect rule of a commonwealth," being the statute-book of the colony. Roger Williams, in 1636, expelled from Massachusetts for teaching universal toleration, settled Rhode Island. During the Commonwealth in England, the liberties of the colonies were guaranteed by Cromwell, and governors were elected by the colonists.

The Portuguese Cabrillo, in the service of Spain, discovered California in 1542; Pedro Melendez founded St. Augustine, in Florida, in 1565; and New Mexico was settled by Espejo in 1582.

Henry Hudson, commissioned by the Dutch East India Company, explored the coast of North America, entered the Narrows, and anchored in what is now New York harbor in 1609. Seeking a passage to the Pacific, he ascended the river which now bears his name, and advanced in a boat above the present site of Albany. Dutch trading stations were established on Manhattan Island in 1613; at Fort Orange, near Albany, in 1615; and at Bergen, New Jersey, in 1618. The Dutch West India Company was chartered in 1621, for colonizing these places. Cornelius Mey took possession in its name of the country on the Delaware River, and built Fort Nassau. All the country from Cape Cod to Delaware Bay received the name of New Netherlands, and its oldest settlement that of New Amsterdam. To encourage colonization, manors were assigned to those who would found settlements at their own expense, and *patroonships* were established on Delaware Bay, Staten Island, the western side of the Narrows, and on the Hudson, near Albany. In 1638, a colony of Swedes was planted near the mouth of Christiana Creek, and extended its limits to the present suburbs of Philadelphia. In 1655, Stuyvesant, Governor of New Netherland, captured the Swedes' fort and established Dutch supremacy over New Sweden.

LEOPOLD I., LEOPOLD DER ERSTE. A.D. 1657-1705.
"Consilio et industria." (Counsel and industry.)

LEOPOLD I. was elected and crowned at Frankfort in spite of the counteracting intrigues of France and Sweden. Louis XIV., upon the death of the King of Spain, laid claim to Flanders and other extensive territories. The Emperor, as head of the House of Austria, expressly bound to protect the interests of the infant King of Spain, consented that Louis should take possession of Flanders, on condition that he himself should have Spain in the event of the death of the young king. Louis, with excellent and well-disciplined troops, the skillful Turenne commanding under him, and accompanied by the celebrated Vauban, whose genius made a complete change in the science of engineering, marched to certain conquest. The rapid progress of his arms alarmed the other powers of Europe. England and Holland, forbearing their quarrels, united with Sweden to stop the course of the youthful sovereign, and peace was concluded at Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1668. Irritated at being stopped short in his career, Louis determined to break the alliance between England and Holland, and this he effected by means of the Duchess of Orleans, sister of Charles II. of England, who visited England for this purpose, after which he immediately attacked Holland. But the Emperor, the Elector of Brandenburg, and Spain assisted the Dutch, and the peace of Nimeguen followed, in 1679.



LEOPOLD I.

Leopold's great generals were Montecuculi, the Elector Maximilian II., Emanuel of Bavaria, called by the Turks the "Blue King," and greatly feared by them, the Margrave Louis of Baden, and Prince Eugene of Savoy. Eugene de Savoie Carignan was the son of Eugene Maurice, Count de Soissons (a grandson of Charles Emanuel I., Duke of Savoy), and Olympia Mancini, one of the nieces of Cardinal Mazarin. Eugene was known at Versailles as "the little abbé of Savoy," being then engaged in ecclesiastical studies. He was refused an abbacy by Louis XIV.; and soon after studying military tactics, he was also refused the command of a regiment. In anger he offered his services to the Emperor Leopold, who accepted them. Louis XIV., on hearing this, asked his courtiers, "Do you not think, gentlemen, that I have suffered a great loss?" He did not know that in losing Eugene he was losing the fortune of France, the future hero of Oudenaarde and Malplaquet.

The Emperor was induced against his own judgment and under great difficulties to make war on the Turks. However, he was successful, and the first of his great victories was gained at St. Gothard, against the infidels, in which his famous general Montecuculi distinguished himself. The Hungarians rebelled, and Tekeli was chosen King of Hungary by the Turks for an annual tribute of forty thousand zechins. Tekeli called the Turks into the empire, and, in 1683, laid siege to Vienna. Just as the city was on the point of capitulating, Charles of Lorraine and John Sobieski of Poland came to its relief. The Turks were attacked in their intrenchments, and suffered a total defeat. Seized with fright, the grand vizier, Kara Mustapha, fled and left his camp to the victor. The booty was immense; it was estimated at fifteen million dollars, and the tent of the grand vizier alone was valued at four hundred thousand dollars. The King of Poland had four million dollars for his share, and in a letter to his wife he said, "The whole of the enemy's camp, together with their artillery and an incalculable amount of property, has fallen into our hands. The camels and mules, together with the captive Turks, are driven away in herds, while I myself have become the heir of the grand vizier. The banner which was usually borne before him, together with the standard of Mahomet, with which the Sultan had honored him in this campaign, and the tents, wagons, and baggage, have all fallen to my share; even some of the quivers we captured are worth several thousand dollars. It would take too long to describe all the other objects of luxury found in his tent, as, for instance, his baths, fountains, and a variety of rare animals. This morning I was in the city, and found that it could hardly

have held out more than five days. Never before did the eye of man see a work of equal magnitude dispatched with a vigor like that with which they blew up and shattered to pieces huge masses of stone and rocks. I myself had to sustain a long contest with the vizier's troops before the left wing came up to my aid, but after the battle I was surrounded by the Elector of Bavaria, Prince Waldeck, and several other princes of the empire, who embraced me with warm affection. The generals took hold of my hands and feet, the colonels, with their regiments of horse and foot, saluted me with, 'Long live our brave king!' This morning the Elector of Saxony, together with the Duke of Lorraine, came to me; and, finally, the Governor of Vienna, Count Stahrenberg, with a multitude of the people, rich and poor, came to meet me; all greeted me most cordially, and called me their deliverer. In the streets were loud rejoicings and cries of 'Long live the king!' When I rode out into the encampment after dinner, the populace with uplifted hands accompanied me out of the city gate. Let us, for this most glorious victory, render to the Most High praise, honor, and thanksgiving forever!"

The war with the Turks continued, with few intermissions, fifteen years longer, ending gloriously for the imperial arms. The very foundations of the Ottoman Empire were shaken by the long train of defeats and disasters which followed one another in quick succession. Transylvania and Sclavonia submitted without reserve to the Emperor; the Hungarian insurgents were severely punished; and Hungary, which had been an elective monarchy, was declared at the diet of Presburg, in 1687, hereditary in the Austrian male line, and Joseph, the eldest son of the Emperor, was crowned King without any previous election. The only stipulation made by the Hungarians was, that their ancient constitution should remain in force.

While the Emperor's forces were occupied in defending the empire from the east, Louis XIV.—the king who always boasted that he made honor the law of his life—availed himself of the opportunity to take possession of Strasburg. In 1688, Louis issued another declaration of war against the empire; and even before it was publicly proclaimed, his troops invaded the Netherlands and the western frontiers of the empire, laid waste the fields, plundered and murdered the defenseless inhabitants, set villages, castles, and churches on fire, destroyed the works of art, and broke open tombs and scattered the bones on all sides! Speyer, with most of its funereal monuments, was destroyed; Worms, Oppenheim, Mannheim, Ladenburg, and Heidelberg were nearly ruined by the permission of Louis XIV. to his cruel and bar-

barous minister, Louvois. But the arrogance of France roused England, Holland, Spain, and Savoy to arrest this "disturber of the peace and the common enemy of all Christendom." War was begun, and continued until all parties were utterly wearied and sincerely inclined to peace. Under these circumstances, the Peace of Ryswick was concluded in September, 1697. By this peace Louis restored all his conquests from Spain, and nearly all from Germany, the city of Strasburg and a part of Alsace excepted, and acknowledged the title of William III. to the crown of England. Thus Louis consented, at the end of a war which had been on the whole successful, to terms of peace which could scarcely have been expected, even in defeat, from the monarch of so great a country as France. But a far more tempting project was filling his mind. The King of Spain, Charles II., the last male heir of the Emperor Charles V., was now on the brink of the grave. He had no children, and both Louis XIV. and the Emperor Leopold I. were his brothers-in-law, both having married daughters of Philip IV. Louis had married the elder sister, but she had by a solemn covenant renounced her right to the Spanish succession. The second sister, who was married to Leopold, had made no such renunciation. Her daughter, however, wife of the Elector Maximilian Emanuel of Bavaria, was obliged, like her aunt, to renounce all her hereditary claims to Spain. Leopold, who had married for his second wife Eleanora, a princess of the Palatine House of Neuberg, had two sons, Joseph and Charles; Leopold demanded the crown of Spain for his son Charles, on the ground that Leopold's mother was an aunt of Charles II. France and Bavaria refused to allow that the renunciations of these princesses affected their families, because they had given up only their own claims, and had no power to renounce the rights of their posterity. Each of these powers now endeavored through its ambassador to induce Charles II., during his lifetime, to make a will in its favor; and Charles, with a view of maintaining the independence of Spain as much as possible, named Joseph Ferdinand of Bavaria his successor. This youth, however, died of the smallpox in the year 1699, and the contest between the Houses of Bourbon and Austria began anew.

Leopold could easily have obtained the victory if he had sent a more able envoy than the haughty Count Harrach to Madrid, for both the Queen of Spain and the Cardinal Archbishop of Toledo were in favor of Austria; but Harrach was no match for the crafty and capable Marquis d'Harcourt. Charles was induced to make a secret will, and when he died, on the 1st of November, 1700, it was found that he had named the grandson of Louis XIV., Philip, Duke of Anjou, heir to the

whole Spanish monarchy. Leopold was utterly confounded by this unexpected blow, though he had only himself to thank for it, the Spanish court having repeatedly pressed him to send the Archduke Charles into Spain with a small army in order to be ready for any emergency. On the other hand, Louis XIV. knew that it would be impossible without war to place his grandson on the throne of Spain. Calling his council together, they unanimously concurred in his project. Louis entered his cabinet, and returned leading the prince by the hand, saying, with the air of a lord of the universe, "My lords, you see here the King of Spain. Nature has formed him for it, the deceased king has nominated him, the people desire him, and I consent."

All Europe was soon in commotion. Prussia, Hanover, the Palatinate, and a few other states were for the Emperor. Maximilian Emanuel of Bavaria, Governor of the Spanish Netherlands, was on the side of the French. His brother, the Elector of Cologne, followed his example. Leopold sent an army into Italy to take possession of the Spanish possessions, Milan and Naples. He placed at its head Prince Eugene of Savoy. Louis tried now to win back Eugene by the offer of the governorship of Champagne, and the dignity of a marshal of France; but Eugene replied, "Tell your king that I am an imperial field-marshals, whose rank is quite as high as that of a marshal of France." Early in March, 1701, Prince Eugene, with the imperial army and ten thousand auxiliary troops from Prussia and Hanover, marched into Italy, and, before the enemy were aware of his movements, his army poured forth from the passes of the mountains and encamped on the plains of Verona. By two victories gained at Carpi and Chiari, Eugene drove the French from a part of Upper Italy and established his winter quarters there.

In the autumn of 1701, an alliance was formed between England, Holland, and Austria. The English would not have taken so active a part in this war if Louis had not so foolishly and arrogantly provoked their indignation. He not only received the exiled family of James II., but after his death at St. Germain, in 1701, he recognized his son, James III., as King of Great Britain. The English were so incensed that a stranger should thus presume to dispose of their throne, that King William obtained from parliament a vote for forty thousand men, instead of ten thousand, as had been at first intended.

William placed Marlborough, who had learned the art of war in the school of the great Turenne, and as a general stood second to none of his day, at the head of this army. In March, 1702, Marlborough

landed in the Netherlands, and placed himself at the head of the Anglo-Dutch army; his first object being the expulsion of the French from the electorate of Cologne. William III. died the same month, in consequence of a violent fall from his horse; but his successor, Queen Anne, faithfully adhered to all his plans, and the war was continued. From this time to the year 1711 the reign of Louis was a constant series of defeats and calamities. In Italy, the imperial forces under Prince Eugene gained such decisive victories that not a hope was left to the House of Bourbon of restoring its power in that country. The Elector of Bavaria made an incursion into the Tyrol, and ascended the Brenner to make his way into Italy; but the Tyrolese climbed the rugged heights on the sides of the passes and hurled trees and rocks down upon their foes as they defiled beneath them, and the Elector, finding it impossible to continue his march, retreated in all haste.

The greatest battle of this war was fought at Hochstädt, near Blenheim, a village in Bavaria, twenty-three miles north-northwest of Augsburg, on August 13, 1704. France and Bavaria on the one hand stood opposed to Holland, England, Austria, Savoy, Portugal, and the German Empire on the other. The French and Bavarian army consisted of fifty-six thousand men, commanded by Tallard, Marsin, and the Elector of Bavaria. Opposed to it was an army of fifty-two thousand men under the command of Marlborough and Prince Eugene. The French and Bavarian generals had no idea that the allies would act on the offensive, and accordingly, when, about two o'clock in the morning, the line of the allies put itself in motion, they believed it was about to retreat. Even at seven o'clock, when the heads of the eight columns advancing under Eugene and Marlborough became visible, Tallard regarded the whole proceeding as a stratagem to cover the retreat. When the mistake was discovered, the army was hastily drawn up in battle-array, and fought with dauntless courage; but at five in the afternoon Marlborough broke through the line of battle, and won a victory most complete and decisive. The French and Bavarians left about ten thousand killed and wounded on the field, vast numbers were drowned in the Danube, and about thirteen thousand, including Tallard, were taken prisoners. Altogether their loss was estimated at between thirty and forty thousand; one hundred and twenty pieces of cannon and three hundred standards were captured. The loss of the victors amounted to about five thousand killed and eight thousand wounded.

In the following year the Emperor Leopold died of dropsy on the chest, in the sixty-fifth year of his age. He had been educated for

the Church, and his reign was marked by attachment to the clergy, irresolution, and indulgence to his ministers, to whom he intrusted the whole management of the government. He was passionately fond of music, and was himself a composer. After he had finished his last prayer on his death-bed, he caused his musicians to enter his room, and died while they were playing. He was buried at Vienna. His first wife was Margaret of Austria, daughter of Philip IV. of Spain; his second, Claudia Felicitas of Austria; his third, Eleanora, countess-palatine of the House of Neuberg, mother of Joseph I. and Charles VI.

JOSEPH I., JOSEPH DER ERSTE. A.D. 1705-1711.

"Amore et timore." (Love and fear.)

JOSEPH I. was crowned during his father's lifetime, in 1690, at Augsburg. In alliance with England and Holland, he continued the war successfully against France. His great generals were Prince Eugene of Savoy, Leopold of Anhalt, called in Germany "the Dessauer," Guido of Stahremberg, and the Duke of Marlborough, who led the English.

Marlborough conquered Marshal Villeroi on the plains of Ramillies, and made Flanders and Brabant swear allegiance to Charles III. Prince Eugene undertook one of the most daring expeditions to be found in the annals of war. With not more than twenty-four thousand German troops he completed a march of more than two hundred miles, ascending mountains and



JOSEPH I.

crossing rivers, and passing through a country wholly occupied by the enemy, in order to effect a junction with the Duke of Savoy, whose capital, Turin, was besieged by the enemy. Eugene arrived in time to aid the duke; and, although his army was much inferior in strength, he ventured an attack at four o'clock in the morning, and was received by a terrific cannonade. The "old Dessauer" led the Prussians on the left wing against the intrenchments, followed in the centre by the Würtembergers and the troops of the Palatinate, and those of Gotha on the right wing; at the same time Count Daun made a sally with his men from the citadel. The battle was extremely obstinate; but after two hours' fighting the Prussians succeeded in mounting the ramparts first, and were soon followed by the others. The two chief French generals, the Duke of Orleans and Count Marsin, were severely wounded and obliged to leave the field of battle. Marsin was taken prisoner, and died the next day, at Turin. The French left five thousand dead and great numbers wounded, while the rest fled in such disorder over the mountains into France, that of the whole army, originally eighty thousand strong, scarcely sixteen thousand men escaped. All the immense supplies they had brought with them, two hundred and thirteen pieces of cannon, eighty thousand barrels of gunpowder, and a vast quantity of ammunition, fell into the hands of the victors. Prince Eugene said, in a letter to Count Zinzendorf, "The Prince of Anhalt has once more done wonders with his troops at Turin. I met him twice in the thickest of the fire, and in the very front; and I cannot conceal it, that in bravery, and especially in discipline, his troops have far surpassed mine." The Emperor Joseph himself wrote to Prince Leopold very honorable letters of thanks. The result of the battle presented still greater advantages than the booty; for the French were compelled to evacuate Italy and pledge themselves to send no more troops there during the whole war. The heroic conduct of Prince Eugene filled all Europe with his fame, and in token of his high regard the Emperor presented him with a valuable sword and appointed him Governor-general of Milan.

After Eugene had regulated affairs in Italy, he went to the Netherlands, where, with Marlborough, in 1708, he won a victory at Oudenarde, and captured the citadel of Ryssel. While he and Marlborough were taking one town after another, and, in 1709, gained a victory at Malplaquet, the Archduke Charles, with his general, Count Stahremberg, gained victories at Almenara and Saragossa, and, in 1710, defeated the army of Philip V. and made a triumphal entry into Madrid. Louis XIV., already old and feeble, was reduced to the last extremity,

and was left without one resource. But now three favorable circumstances rescued France, and gained for her more liberal conditions of peace than had yet been offered her. In England, the friends of Marlborough had governed the state, but upon the Tories coming into power Marlborough was recalled and dismissed. The French partisans triumphed in Spain, and the Emperor Joseph I. died, in 1711, of the smallpox, in his thirty-third year. The Emperor Joseph was far superior to his father or brother. His mind was capable of entertaining the most noble and enlarged ideas, and therefore it was that his penetrating eye selected Eugene, with his extraordinary genius, as worthy of his entire confidence. Joseph was buried in Vienna. His wife was Wilhelmina of Hanover. As he died without heirs, he was succeeded by his brother, the Archduke of Austria.

CONTEMPORARIES OF THE EMPERORS LEOPOLD I. AND JOSEPH I.

Charles II. commenced his reign in 1660, amid the great joy of a loyal people; but he disappointed his friends and alienated his wiser counselors by his careless and dissolute life and the corruptions which he permitted in his court. He lost the respect of the people by receiving a pension from Louis XIV. of France, and by his subsequent subserviency to French interests. The great plague and a very destructive fire occurred in London in the early part of his reign. He founded the Naval Hospital, but it was not finished until the time of William III. Charles died in 1685, in the fifty-fifth year of his age.

Katharine of Braganza, the well-intentioned but ill-used queen of Charles II., was the daughter of John, Duke of Braganza, who freed his country from the dominion of Spain, and was proclaimed king of Portugal. After Charles's death she returned to Portugal, where, during the illness of her brother, she ruled the kingdom well. She died in the sixty-eighth year of her age, beloved in her own country and revered by the loyal in England. She left no children.

James II., brother of Charles II., was born in 1633, and died in 1701. He was a favorite with the English in his youth, and filled the station of lord high admiral with respectability. His conduct as king was neither politic nor prudent, and he was dethroned. His first wife was Anne Hyde, who had two children,—Mary, who married William, Prince of Orange, and Anne, who married Prince George of Denmark.

Mary Beatrice of Modena, second wife of James II., was a descendant of the illustrious House of Este, which, more than any other family of Europe, has contributed to the progress of civilization by liberal encouragement of literature and the fine arts. Victoria is the repre-

sentative of the elder branch of this illustrious stock, which, A.D. 1000, divided into two houses, in consequence of the marriage of the Marquis of Tuscany with the wealthy Bavarian family of Guelph, when the elder of the two sons took the name and estates of his German mother, while the younger reigned over the duchies of Ferrara and Modena. Mary Beatrice was exceedingly beautiful, virtuous, and intelligent, but very unfortunate. After the dethronement of her husband she went with him to France, where they were given an asylum by Louis XIV. at St. Germains. James, Mary Beatrice, and their daughter Louisa died here, and their hearts were deposited in urns in the convent of Chaillot. Only one child survived them, James Francis Edward, styled the Chevalier de St. George, or, as he is more commonly called, the Pretender,—a nickname given him by his half-sister, Queen Anne. The Pretender married Clementina, daughter of the King of Poland, and granddaughter of the famous John Sobieski. They had two sons, Charles Edward, the Young Pretender, and Henry, Cardinal York, the last descendant of the Stuarts, who died at Rome in 1807.

William III., Prince of Orange, was elected King of Great Britain in 1688, his wife Mary, daughter of James II., being associated with him in the government. The Scots made a brief resistance under Lord Dundee, but, losing their leader at Killiekrankie, submitted to William. The Irish held out longer for King James, but were defeated at the battle of the Boyne. Immersed in politics, William had neither leisure nor inclination for literature or art. His great object was to preserve the balance of power in Europe, which engaged him in the wars against Louis XIV., and to defray the expenses of these wars the national debt was funded. William died in 1702.

Mary II., wife of William III., was unhappy as a wife,—an undutiful daughter and an inveterate card-player. She really reigned alone the chief part of the six years that she was Queen of Great Britain; for William III., with the exception of the first year of his election to the throne of the British empire, was seldom more than four months together in England, being occupied in the war in Ireland, and afterwards in Flanders, against Louis XIV. Her best good work was the foundation of Greenwich Hospital. She died in 1694, in the thirty-sixth year of her age; and her royal consort reigned alone until 1702. They had no children.

Anne, the last sovereign of the House of Stuart, succeeded her brother-in-law by virtue of an act of parliament, which set aside the claims of James II. and his son. The war of the Spanish Succession,

designed by the Protestant powers of Europe to curb the ambition of Louis XIV., gave ample exercise to the military talents of the Duke of Marlborough, Anne's greatest general. Scotland was united with England under one parliament during her reign. Anne married Prince George of Denmark, and had several children, all of whom died young. Her conduct, while princess, towards her father, her stepmother, and her half-brother was base in the extreme; but as a wife and mother she was all that could be desired. Her reign was decidedly successful. No subject's blood was shed for treason, and she was so charitable that her privy purse was facetiously called "the national poor-box." The people sincerely loved her, and never spoke of her but as the good Queen Anne,—an epithet by which they fondly remembered her throughout the two subsequent reigns.

John Milton, the greatest epic poet that England ever produced, held the situation of Latin secretary under Oliver Cromwell; Sir Isaac Newton, John Locke, Archbishop Tillotson, and Bishop Burnet lived in the times of Charles II., James II., and William III. Those who graced the times of Queen Anne were Pope, Steele, Addison, and Swift.

Anne of Austria, Queen-regent of France in 1654, negotiated the marriage of her son, Louis XIV., with her niece, Maria Theresa, Infanta of Spain; and the marriage was celebrated with great pomp at Saint-Jean-de-Luz, by the Bishop of Bayonne. The king and his royal consort repaired to Vincennes, in order to give the Parisians time to make preparations for a magnificent entry into the capital, which took place by the Barrière du Trône, when the nobility and the citizens rivaled each other in the luxury of their dresses and equipages. The royal pair were received with the utmost splendor at the Louvre. Anne of Austria asked the young queen, a few days after, "What did you think of your reception at the Louvre?" "I thought," she replied, "of that other pageant, which shall one day carry me to the tomb."

After the king's marriage, Anne of Austria retired from public affairs. Louis always received his mother's counsels with the greatest deference, although she never spared her reproofs on the subject of his neglect of his queen, and his public acts of infidelity. Anne was afflicted with a cancer, which during the last eighteen months of her life caused her intense suffering. In this malady she offered a striking example of the fragility of human grandeur and personal charms, which she often remarked to the ladies in attendance on her, looking with compassion on her hands and arms, once so beautiful and so much admired. During her illness she displayed the greatest pa-

tience, and her countenance wore the smile of benevolence to the last. The king, the queen, the Duke of Anjou, and Madame Henrietta were constantly at her side, and with her last breath she was anxious to let them know how agreeable were their care and attentions, and how much she was consoled by their affection. She died in 1666, at the age of sixty-five, and was buried at St. Denis. Louis regretted her sincerely, for she had failed in no point of maternal affection. Daughter, wife, sister, and mother of kings, she possessed all the dignity which belonged to her elevated rank; she was proud, but her manners were exquisitely polished. She was a great admirer of the fine arts, and loved and encouraged literature.

Louis XIV., after Mazarin's death, took active charge of affairs, and, by diligent attention to business, consolidated that power which made him the "Grand Monarque" of France. On the death of Philip IV. of Spain, Louis violated his solemn engagements, and, aided by Colbert and Louvois, his ministers of war and finance, seized the Spanish Netherlands. A coalition of England, Sweden, and Holland against him procured the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle. In 1672, Louis leagued all Europe with him against Holland. The Palatinate was ravaged by Turenne, and many cities and villages were burned. The Peace of Nimeguen gave Louis leisure to gather his forces for fresh conquests. The revocation of the Edict of Nantes led to a relentless persecution of the Huguenots, who left the country to the number of half a million. In the war of the Spanish Succession, Louis, though humbled by many reverses, succeeded in placing his grandson, Philip V., on the throne of Spain. Having outlived his children, and most of his grandchildren, Louis devoted his last days to religious observances, and died, after a reign of seventy-two years, in 1715.

Louis built the palace of Versailles, and expended on the buildings and grounds two hundred millions of dollars; and while he was raising this monument of extravagance, his wise minister, Colbert, was encouraging trade, commerce, and manufactures. The canal of Languedoc, connecting the Atlantic with the Mediterranean, was begun in 1664, and completed in 1681. Until the reign of Henry IV. no provision had been made for soldiers maimed or wounded in war; Louis XIV., finding his asylum too small, began the construction of the Hôtel des Invalides, in 1671, and the principal part was finished in 1706. Several additions have been made since. Louis was a liberal patron of men of letters. The most distinguished dramatic writers of his time were Corneille, Molière, and Racine; the poets, Boileau, La Fontaine, and Voiture; the philosophers were Montesquieu and Fontenelle. Hénault,

president of a court, spent forty years in writing a short chronological abridgment of the history of France. Madame Dacier was distinguished for her knowledge of the ancient classics, and Madame de Sévigné acquired celebrity by her letters, which are considered as models of epistolary writing. The churchmen most eminent for piety, learning, and eloquence were Bossuet, Bourdaloue, Massillon, and Fénelon.

Maria Theresa, wife of Louis XIV., was the daughter of Philip IV. of Spain and Elizabeth of France, sister of Louis XIII., and niece of Anne of Austria. She was born at the Escorial in 1638, five days after her cousin, Louis XIV. Although endowed with many personal as well as moral advantages, and the daughter and wife of a king, she passed her life in comparative obscurity. Modest and retiring, she had no ambitious views, and was an entire stranger to political affairs. Gentle, virtuous, and an enemy to intrigue, she spared no efforts to gain the king's affection, but was only fortunate enough to obtain his esteem and friendship. She died at the château de Chambord in 1683, aged forty-five. In her last moments the king approached her bed and addressed her in Spanish; his consoling language appeared to reanimate her for a moment, and her countenance testified that she died more content. Louis publicly declared that the queen had never caused him any grief but by her death, and sincerely lamented the virtuous wife whose premature loss he had occasioned. So great was his veneration for her memory, that on the anniversary of her death he never partook of any recreation, but confined himself the whole day to his apartment. Maria Theresa had three sons, the Dauphin Louis, and two sons who were successively Dukes of Anjou; her daughters all died young.

Frances d'Aubigné was the only daughter of Constant d'Aubigné and Jane de Cardillac, who was descended from a noble family of Guienne. Left by the death of her parents without any fortune, she married the celebrated comic poet Scarron. She was then only sixteen, and Scarron, so celebrated for his burlesque writings, was aged, deformed, overwhelmed with infirmities, gouty, and confined to his elbow-chair; but always cheerful and gay, notwithstanding his sufferings. The narrowness of the poet's small fortune did not prevent the most clever and intellectual persons at court from frequenting his modest apartments, whither they were attracted by his sparkling wit and enlivening conversation. In this brilliant society the young wife, who was called *La belle Indienne* from having passed the greater part of her childhood in the island of Martinique, formed a large circle of

acquaintance. Her solicitude for her aged and infirm husband gained her as much esteem as her beauty obtained her admirers. After a union of ten years, she was left a widow, and in a state of extreme indigence. At length she obtained the situation of governess to the two children of Madame de Montespan. Death soon robbed her of the eldest, when all Madame Scarron's care and attention was centred in the second, the Duke du Maine. In 1674, Louis, as a recompense for her care of his children, made her a present of one hundred thousand francs. With this sum she purchased the estate of Maintenon, near Versailles, of which she was so fond that the king called her from that period Madame de Maintenon. Two years after the death of the queen, Maria Theresa, she was married secretly to the king by the Archbishop of Paris, in the presence of Père la Chaise, her confessor, and two witnesses. Yet her happiness was not lasting; she herself says, "I was born ambitious: I resisted this inclination. When the wish which I no longer indulged was fulfilled, I thought myself happy; but this intoxication lasted only three weeks." At the time of this marriage Louis was forty-eight, and she was fifty years of age. She was entirely submissive to the will of the king, and wholly occupied with the means of rendering herself agreeable to him, and this slavery of her age made her more unhappy than the poverty of her youth had done. "What a martyrdom," said she to Lady Bolingbroke, her niece, "to be obliged to amuse a man who is incapable of being amused!" A few days previous to the death of Louis, she retired to the convent of Saint-Cyr. On taking leave of him, he said, "I regret only you. Adieu; we shall see each other again in a better world." In Saint-Cyr she lived tranquilly and economically, devoting herself to the government of the community and to religious practices. Her greatest pleasure was to receive the visits of her old pupil, the Duke du Maine. When Peter the Great visited France in 1717, he expressed a wish to see the widow of Louis XIV., but was far from manifesting the same enthusiasm for her as Christina of Sweden displayed for Ninon de l'Enclos in her old age. Madame de Maintenon was confined to her bed when she received the Czar, who entered her apartment, drew aside the curtains, stared at her a few moments, and retired without speaking a word. Her last affections were centred in the Duke du Maine, whose exile for conspiracy against the regent hastened her death. She expired in 1719, at the age of eighty-four, infirm in body but sound in mind. She was buried with great solemnity in the choir of the church belonging to the convent of Saint-Cyr.

Henri de la Tour d'Auvergne, Vicomte de Turenne, born in 1611,

at Sedan, was the second son of Henry de la Tour d'Auvergne, Duke of Bouillon, and of Elizabeth, daughter of William I., Prince of Orange. He studied the art of war under his uncle, Prince Maurice of Nassau, and in 1634 received the command of a French regiment, served at the siege of Lamothe, in Lorraine, and took a bastion which the son of the marshal had attempted in vain to capture. For this he was appointed field-marshall; and having also performed important services at the taking of Breisach, Cardinal Richelieu offered him one of his nieces in marriage, an offer which Turenne declined on account of his attachment to the Protestant religion, in which he had been educated. In 1639 he was sent into Italy, where he raised the siege of Casale and defeated the enemy near Montcallier, while the Marshal d'Harcourt besieged Turin. In 1643 he conquered Roussillon, and in 1644 was rewarded with a marshal's bâton and the chief command of the army of the Rhine. He crossed the Rhine, defeated the Bavarians under Mercy, joined the Duke d'Enghien, afterwards Prince of Condé, and was defeated, in 1645, at Marienthal; but three months afterwards he gained the great victory of Nordlingen. Subsequently forming a junction with the Swedes under Wrangel, he defeated the Bavarians at Susmarshausen, and compelled the Elector to sue for peace. In the war of the Fronde, Turenne was at first gained over to the side of the rebels; but in 1650 he was defeated by Du Plessis-Praslin, and candidly confessed that he lost the battle through his own negligence; "for," he added, "if any one commits no faults in war, it is a proof that he has not had long experience in it." The Spanish court sent him one hundred thousand crowns to continue the war; but Turenne returned it, as he expected to be reconciled to the court party. This reconciliation took place in 1651, and Turenne was appointed general of the royal army. His great adversary was now the Prince of Condé, who was in the Spanish service. These two commanders carried on the war with alternate success, until the capture of Dunkirk by Turenne and the occupation of a great part of Flanders enabled Cardinal Mazarin to conclude the Peace of the Pyrenees. In 1653 he married the daughter of the Marshal and Duke de la Force, but she bore him no children. On the renewal of the war with Spain, in 1667, Louis XIV. selected Turenne for his teacher in the art of war, and made him his lieutenant-general. Flanders and Franche-Comté were subdued, and Turenne joined the Catholic Church in 1668. When Louis, in 1672, resolved on the conquest of Holland, Turenne had the chief command, and compelled the Elector Frederic William of Brandenburg, who assisted the Dutch, to sign the Peace of Vossem. Turenne was on all occasions

very honorable and disinterested. When a general made a proposal to him by which he might have obtained four hundred thousand livres, he answered that he had often rejected such proposals, and should always continue to do so. A city offered him a present of one hundred thousand dollars to induce him not to march through its territories. "As your city," answered Turenne, "does not lie in my route, I cannot accept your offer." In Alsace and on the Rhine he was victorious. Turenne laid waste the Palatinate with fire and sword. The Elector saw, from his castle at Mannheim, two cities and twenty-five villages in flames. Turenne's extraordinary fortune induced the imperial court to oppose to him their best general, and Montecuculi was sent, in 1673, over the Rhine. After a variety of skillful movements, they were about to come to an engagement at Sassbach, in Baden, when Turenne, while reconnoitring for the purpose of finding a place for the erection of a battery, was killed by a cannon-ball. The highest honor was shown by the king to the remains of Turenne. They were interred, like those of the Constable du Guesclin, at St. Denis. Napoleon transferred his remains to the Hôtel des Invalides.

Louis II. of Bourbon, Prince of Condé, commonly termed the "Great Condé," was the great-grandson of that Prince of Condé who, in the dissensions between the Houses of Guise and Bourbon, was the soul of his party, which was for the most part Calvinistic or Huguenot. Louis II. was born in 1621. In youth he took part in the sieges of Arras and Perpignan, and commanded the army against the Spaniards in the Netherlands, where he almost extirpated the foe in the battle of Rocroi, in 1643. In the autumn of the same year he was sent to Alsace to support Turenne; and in 1644 he defeated the Bavarian general Mercy near Freiburg, and so won for France a considerable portion of Germany. By the death of his father he became the head of the family, in 1646, and, next to the Duke of Orleans, was the highest personage in the state. This pre-eminence excited the envy of Mazarin, who, however, in 1648 intrusted him with the command of the army in the Netherlands. Here Condé captured Ypres, and gained the battle of Lens, but was recalled to Paris by the war of the Fronde, which had just broken out. In this contest, Condé at first sided with the court, while his brother, the Prince of Conti, and his sister, the celebrated Duchess de Longueville, took the part of the *Frondeurs*. After the court had secretly escaped from Paris, January 6, 1649, Condé concluded a treaty which insured the return of the court to Paris in August of the same year. But, as this service met with no adequate thanks, Condé, who was the haughtiest Frenchman of his age, soon became

more rebellious than the *Frondeurs* themselves. Mazarin arrested him with his brother and the Duke de Longueville, but was obliged to release them on account of the threatenings of Turenne and the people. Condé was no sooner at liberty than he renewed the war, and, assembling troops in the Netherlands, he gained the battle of Bleneau, in 1652, and immediately marched on Paris. Turenne defended the court, and a bloody but indecisive struggle took place in the streets of Paris. Many of Condé's adherents were killed, and the *Frondeurs* began to yield. A treaty was drawn up to which most of them agreed, but the proud, impracticable Condé would have nothing to do with it; and, furious at the defection of so many of his friends, he left the country, and on the outbreak of war between France and Spain he became generalissimo of the Spanish forces, but was unable to gain any advantage over Turenne. When the Peace of the Pyrenees was concluded, it was thought advisable to enter into friendly relations with the brilliant traitor. Condé was therefore pardoned and reinstated in his former honors. The war having been resumed with Spain in 1673, he again commanded the French in the Netherlands. After Turenne's decease, he held the command in Germany until he was so disabled by the gout that he had to resign his post. He now retired to his estate of Chantilly, where he devoted the remainder of his life to literature, for which in his early years he had exhibited a strong predilection, to the society of friends, and religious exercises. He died at Fontainebleau in 1686. Condé had a superior intellect and great strength of character, associated with pride. Though an able commander, he was disliked by his soldiers, on account of his severity.

Sebastian le Prestre, Seigneur de Vauban, Marshal of France, and the greatest engineer that country has produced, was born in 1633, of an ancient and noble family of Nivernois. He entered the army early, where his uncommon talents and genius for fortification soon became known, and were signally displayed in various successive sieges. He rose to the highest military rank by his merits and services, and was made commissioner-general of fortifications in 1678. He took Luxemburg in 1684, and was present in 1668 at the siege and capture of Philippsburg, Mannheim, and Frankental, under the dauphin. He was made Marshal of France in 1703, and died at Paris in 1707, aged seventy-four. As an engineer, he carried the art of fortifying, attacking, and defending towns to a degree of perfection unknown before his time. He fortified above three hundred ancient citadels, erected thirty-three new ones, had the principal management and direction of fifty-three sieges, and was present at one hundred and forty-three engagements.

Christina, Queen of Sweden, only child of the great Gustavus Adolphus and of the Princess Maria Eleanora of Brandenburg, was born in 1626, and succeeded her father in 1632, when only six years old. Distinguished equally by beauty and the possession of a lively imagination, a good memory, and uncommon intelligence, she received the education of a man rather than of a woman. During her minority the kingdom was governed by the five highest officers of the state, the principal being the Chancellor Oxenstiern. In 1644 she assumed the reins of power, and in 1650 was crowned, with the title of *king*. For four years thereafter she ruled the kingdom with vigor, and was remarkable for her patronage of learned and scientific men. France, Spain, Holland, and England sought her friendship. At the age of twenty-eight, weary of the restraints which royalty imposed on her, she resigned the crown in favor of her cousin, Charles Gustavus (Charles X.), whom her subjects were anxious she should marry. She reserved to herself a certain income, entire independence, and full power over her suite and household. A few days afterwards, she left Sweden, and went through Denmark and Germany to Brussels, where she made a public entry, and remained for some time. There she made a secret profession of the Catholic religion, which she afterwards publicly confirmed at Innspruck, in the Franciscan Church, November 3, 1654; a step which excited great astonishment, and of the causes of which nothing is known. Christina went from Innspruck to Rome, which she entered on horseback, in the costume of an Amazon, with great pomp. When Pope Alexander VII. confirmed her, she adopted the surname of *Alessandra*. In 1656, she visited France, where her dress and manners produced an unfavorable impression; but her talents and knowledge were generally admired. She offered to mediate between France and Spain; but Mazarin declined the offer, and succeeded in accelerating her departure from the country under various pretexts. In the following year she returned to France, where she ordered the execution of her grand equerry, Monaldeschi, who had enjoyed her entire confidence, but whom she accused of treason. The French court testified its displeasure, and two months passed before she showed herself publicly in Paris. She would have taken the crown of Sweden after the death of her cousin had she been permitted; she then aspired to the crown of Poland, but the Poles took no notice of her wishes. Finally she returned to Italy, where she died in 1689, and was interred in the church of St. Peter. The Pope erected a monument to her with a long inscription, although she had asked only the words, "Vixit Christina Annos LXIII."

John Sobieski, the greatest of the monarchs of Poland, was elected to the throne in 1674, and his first great achievement was the victory of Kotzim, gained with a comparatively small force over an army of eighty thousand Mussulmans, strongly intrenched on the banks of the Dniester. Forty thousand of the enemy were left dead in the precincts of the camp. All Europe was electrified by this extraordinary triumph, the greatest that had been won for three centuries over the infidels. But what has immortalized Sobieski's name is the deliverance of Vienna, in 1683. At five o'clock in the afternoon of Sunday, the 12th of September, Sobieski had drawn up his forces in the plain fronting the Mussulman camp, and ordering the advance, he exclaimed, aloud, "Not to us, O Lord, but to thee, be the glory." Whole bands of Tartars broke and fled when they heard the name of the Polish hero, repeated from one end to the other of the Ottoman lines. With a furious charge the Polish infantry seized an eminence that commanded the Grand Vizier's position, when Kara Mustapha, taken by surprise, fell at once from the heights of confidence to the depths of despair. Charge upon charge was rapidly hurled upon the already wavering Moslems, whose rout soon became general. In vain Mustapha tried to rally the broken hosts. "Can you not help me?" said he to the Khan of the Tartars, who passed him among the fugitives. "I know the King of Poland," was the reply; "and I tell you, that with such an enemy we have no safety but in flight." So sudden and general was the panic among the Turks, that at six o'clock Sobieski entered the camp, where one hundred and twenty thousand tents were still found standing; the innumerable multitude of Orientals had disappeared; but their spoils, their horses, their camels, their splendor, loaded the ground.

This battle-field was noted for the number of princes who took part in it. There was the Elector John George III., a brave warrior, "hard to be thrown out of the saddle," at the head of his Saxons; the young Elector Maximilian Emanuel, with his Bavarians, fighting as a volunteer under Duke Charles of Lorraine. The Prince of Saxe-Lauenburg led the imperial cavalry, Prince Hermann of Baden the infantry, and Prince Waldeck the Franconians. Among the volunteers were three princes of Anhalt, two of Hanover, three of the House of Saxe, two from the Palatinate of Neuburg, two from Würtemberg (a third distinguished himself in the city), one prince of Hesse-Cassel, and one from Hohenzollern. None were absent, except—the Emperor.

Sobieski died in 1696, in the midst of the ruin that was fast overwhelming his country through the dissensions and clamors of a turbu-

lent nobility, and just in time to save his withered laurels from being torn from his brow by the rude hand of rebellion. With him the greatness of his native land may be said to have ended.

In 1692, Brunswick-Lüneberg, afterwards Hanover, was made the ninth electorate, but not without resistance on the part of the electors and princes of the empire, so that it was not fully recognized until 1710.

Augustus, surnamed the *Strong*, Elector of Saxony, was elected King of Poland in 1697, when he became a Catholic to secure the crown. Saxony had bitter cause to regret the union of these crowns. It is said that Augustus, after the death of John Sobieski, gave ten million Polish florins to secure his election. In making war to recover the provinces that had been ceded to Sweden, he was defeated and deposed, and Stanislas Leszczynski elected in his stead, in 1706. So complete was the humiliation of Augustus, that he was compelled to send a letter of congratulation to the new Polish king, together with all the crown jewels and archives. Afterwards he recovered the crown, and retained it until his death, in 1733.

Frederic William, Elector of Brandenburg, commonly called the "Great Elector," came to the throne in 1640. On his accession he found an empty exchequer, the towns and cities depopulated, and his whole country devastated by the ravages of the Swedish and imperialist armies during the Thirty Years' War, which was not yet concluded, while a portion of his inheritance had been confiscated by the Swedes. His first acts were to regulate his finances, and to conclude a treaty of neutrality with Sweden. In the course of ten years he had, by the help of his generals, Derfflinger, Schomberg, and Kannenberg, created an army of twenty-five thousand men, organized on the Swedish model; and, having been constrained to enter into an alliance with Charles X., and, having been co-operated with him in the taking of Warsaw, which was effected at the cost of a most sanguinary engagement, in 1656. In return for this co-operation, the Great Elector secured the *emancipation of his Prussian duchy from its former dependence on Poland*. He assisted the Emperor against the aggressions of Louis XIV., and, after the treaty of St. Germain, devoted himself to the task of consolidating the prosperity of his dominions. During his reign he more than tripled the area of his territories; and by his generous reception of twenty thousand French Protestants after the revocation of the Edict of Nantes, and the encouragement which he afforded to the immigration of Dutchmen and other foreigners, he augmented the population of his states and introduced numerous industrial arts among his subjects.

He founded the university at Duisburg, and the royal library at Berlin, reorganized the universities of Frankfort-on-the-Oder and Königsberg, opened canals, established a system of posts, and greatly enlarged and beautified Berlin. He left a well-filled exchequer and a highly-organized army. The Great Elector was sent to Holland, when he was fourteen years old, to be educated. Prince Frederic Henry of Orange, seeing him attentive to his studies and avoiding the pleasures of the luxurious capital of the Hague, said to him, "Cousin, you have done well; you will do more. Whoever can conquer himself is capable of great undertakings." Gustavus Adolphus saw him when he was about eleven years old, and was so pleased with him that he proposed to his father a marriage of the young prince to his daughter Christina. But in 1646 Frederic William married Louise Henriette, daughter of Prince Frederic Henry of Orange, and it proved a happy marriage. The Great Elector died in April, 1688, universally lamented by his people.

Elector *Frederic III.* exhibited the same zeal as his father for the aggrandizement and amelioration of his dominions; but he was distinguished from him by his admiration of Louis XIV., whose pomp and luxurious display he imitated at his own court. He supported William of Orange in his attempt on England, and gave him a subsidy of six thousand men, which, under the command of Marshal Schomberg, contributed to gain the victory at the Boyne, which decided the fate of James II. Frederic was always ready to lend troops and money to his allies, and sent six thousand of his best troops to aid the Emperor against the Turks; and finally the Emperor agreed to acknowledge him King of Prussia, because he stood in need of his assistance. A treaty, called the "Crown Treaty," was signed by Leopold, by which, in return for permission to assume the title of King of Prussia, Frederic bound himself to furnish certain contingents of men and money to the imperial government. As soon as this treaty had been signed, Frederic hastened with all his court to Königsberg, where, on the 18th of January, 1701, he placed the crown on his own head, and then crowned his wife, Sophie Charlotte, a daughter of the Elector of Hanover. Frederic did much to embellish Berlin, where he founded the Royal Academy of Sciences and the Academy of Painting and Sculpture, erected several churches, and laid out numerous streets. He established a court of appeal at Berlin, built the palace of Charlottenburg, and founded the University of Halle. Here too was founded, in 1698, the celebrated orphan asylum, by the great German philanthropist, August Hermann Francke. Frederic III. of Brandenburg, Frederic I., King of Prussia, died in 1713.

ARTISTS.

Giovanni Lorenzo Bernini, born at Naples in 1598, was employed by Pope Urban VIII. to produce designs for the embellishment of the basilica of St. Peter at Rome. The bronze *baldacchino*, or canopy, covering the high altar of that edifice, the Palace Barberini, the front of the College de Propaganda Fide, and the church Sant' Andrea a Monte Cavallo, are by Bernini. His greatest work in architecture is the colossal colonnade at St. Peter's. In 1665, Bernini accepted the flattering invitation of Louis XIV., and went to Paris, where he lived some time; but not wishing to interfere with the designs of Claude Perrault for the Louvre, he confined himself entirely to sculpture. Richly laden with gifts, he returned to Rome, where he died in 1680, leaving five hundred thousand dollars to his children.

Louis XIV. always showed himself desirous of employing native rather than foreign talent, and he encouraged and enlarged the Academy of Fine Arts, which had been founded at the commencement of his reign, under the direction of Lebrun. In the sixteenth century, Francis Clouet was distinguished as a portrait-painter, and Jean Cousin as a painter, sculptor, and architect. In the seventeenth century, among many names, those chiefly deserving notice are Simon Vouet, the brothers Le Nain, N. Poussin, Claude Lorrain, Mignard, Bourdon, Le Sueur, Borgogne, and Coypel.

KING PHILIP'S, KING WILLIAM'S, AND QUEEN ANNE'S WARS IN AMERICA.

In 1664, James, Duke of York, having received from his brother, Charles II., a grant of the lands between the Connecticut River and Delaware Bay, sent a fleet which captured New Amsterdam and took possession in his name of the whole province of New Netherland. All the Atlantic provinces, from Florida to the St. Croix, were now united under English rule. In 1670, a settlement was made between Ashley and Cooper Rivers, which received, in honor of the reigning king, the name of Charleston. Sir J. Yeamans brought a cargo of African captives, and South Carolina became a slave State from her birth. In 1675, King Philip's war spread through Massachusetts, and many towns and villages were burned. In 1681, William Penn received from Charles II. the fertile province on the western bank of the Delaware, and became by purchase proprietor of Eastern New Jersey, the Western portion having already been assigned to him. In 1689, King Wil-

liam's war broke out between the English settlements and the French, assisted by the Indians, and lasted until the Peace of Ryswick in 1697, which closed the war and settled our northern boundaries as they now exist. Queen Anne's war began in 1702, by the French and Indians, and ended in 1713, when the English colonies recaptured Port Royal, and changed its name to Annapolis, and that of the whole province to Nova Scotia.

CHARLES VI., KARL DER SECHSTE. A.D. 1711-1740.

"Constantia et fortitudine." (Constancy and fortitude.)

CHARLES VI. was the last of the proper male line of the House of Hapsburg. His father had intended the crown of Spain for him; but Charles II. of Spain, yielding to French intrigues, assigned it by will to Philip of Anjou, whereupon arose the great war of the Spanish Succession. England and Holland took part with the Emperor against France, in order to maintain the balance of power in Europe, and Charles was acknowledged by them as Charles III. of Spain; but he had not succeeded in obtaining permanent possession of that kingdom when the death of his brother, the Emperor Joseph I., in 1711, recalled him to Germany. The question now arose, whether it were advisable that the present Charles, if elected by the Germans as their Emperor, under the title of Charles VI., should be allowed to preside over the half of Europe, and the power of the House of Austria should become so pre-



CHARLES VI.

pondering? For then he would have the same domination as Charles V. Such a predominance appeared dangerous to the other states, especially to the maritime powers, and they accordingly promoted the election of Charles as Emperor, with the view of afterwards depriving him of a portion of the Spanish succession. He was, therefore, crowned at Frankfort on the 22d of December, 1711.

Charles continued the war for some time longer, but was obliged to give up his claim to Spain, although he retained the Spanish Netherlands and the Spanish possessions in Italy. Success attended the arms of the Emperor in his war against the Turks. Prince Eugene* gained a victory at Peterwardein, in 1716, which completed the deliverance of Hungary from the Moslem yoke, and in 1717 captured the important fortress of Belgrade, after he had defeated an army of two hundred thousand Turks, with a loss to them of twenty thousand men. Meantime, the great war which was convulsing the other half of Europe, north and east, although not much felt in Germany, pursued its course until the death of Charles XII. of Sweden, in 1718.

The Emperor Charles, having lost his only son, and being anxious to secure the throne to his own descendants, named his eldest daughter, Maria Theresa, as his heiress, by a *pragmatic sanction*, to which he had much difficulty to obtain the consent of some of the German princes and foreign powers; and to accomplish this object he gave up Tuscany, Parma, Piacenza, and afterwards Naples, Sicily, Lorraine, and a part of the duchy of Milan. The ruling family of Lorraine was indemnified for Lorraine by the possession of Tuscany. On the extinction of the male Farnese line, Don Carlos, son of Philip V. of Spain and of Elizabeth Farnese, received the duchies of Parma and Piacenza, which, on his accession to the throne of the Two Sicilies, were ceded to the Emperor by way of indemnification.

Charles was afterwards unsuccessful in his wars with France and Spain, but still more so with the Turks, who compelled him, in 1739, to resign his former conquests. Charles died in 1740, and was buried in Vienna. He had a mild and benevolent disposition, but was full of superstition and of prejudices in favor of feudalism and ecclesiastical domination. His wife was Elizabeth Christina of Brunswick.

After his death, the German poet Platen said, "The pride of ages is no more; it has faded away, that mighty realm of a thousand years; but an intellectual empire has succeeded, and its glory and power shall be revealed."

* Prince Eugene served under three emperors, of whom he said that he found a father in Leopold I., a brother in Joseph I., and in Charles VI. a master. He died in Vienna in 1736, and was buried in the cathedral of St. Stephen.

CHARLES VII., KARL DER SIEBENTE. A.D. 1742-1745.

His motto is not known.

CHARLES, Elector of Bavaria, a descendant of Anna, the eldest daughter of the Emperor Ferdinand I., and who had married a daughter of the Emperor Joseph I., disputed the empire with Maria Theresa. While Frederic II., the Great, of Prussia was invading Silesia, in order to maintain his claim to some duchies in that country, and Maria Theresa was assembling her warriors to prevent him, Charles Albert of Bavaria succeeded in getting himself elected and crowned Emperor, at Frankfort, in 1742, chiefly through the influence of France. Frederic the Great, having acquired Silesia, concluded a separate

peace with Austria, at Breslau, in 1742, and Charles and his allies, the French, were defeated everywhere in the war they had undertaken against Austria and England, herally. Maria Theresa, unwilling to lose any part of the dominions left her by her father, now undertook to recover Silesia, and Frederic, in alliance with Hesse-Cassel and the elector-palatine, began the war again. The Elector of Saxony sent auxiliary troops to the Empress, and the Emperor Charles was obliged to remain in Frankfort, because Bavaria was occupied by the enemy. At length Charles succeeded in re-entering Munich, where he fell ill, saying, "Misfortune will never leave me till I leave it." He died in January, 1745, and was buried in the Theatiner Church, in Munich. His wife was Mary Amalia of Austria, daughter of the Emperor Joseph



CHARLES VII.

I. His only surviving son, Maximilian III., Joseph the Good, succeeded him in the government of Bavaria. As Maximilian III. had no children, he renewed the agreement with the Wittelsbach palatine, leaving Bavaria to Charles Theodore, on condition that he should make Munich his residence.

CONTEMPORARIES OF THE EMPERORS CHARLES VI. AND CHARLES VII.

HOUSE OF BRUNSWICK.

George I., Elector of Hanover, succeeded to the English throne, in 1714, by right of his mother, Sophia, who was a granddaughter of James I. He was plain and simple in his tastes and appearance. He possessed much natural prudence and good sense. His fault was that he studied the interests of his German subjects more than those of the English. In his reign the Earl of Mar headed a rebellion in favor of the Pretender, James Francis Edward, who was defeated at Preston in 1715.

Sophia Dorothea, daughter of the Duke of Zell, married her cousin, the Elector of Hanover, and afterwards George I. of England. George divorced and imprisoned her in the castle of Ahlden, in the German dukedom of Zell. George II. was her son. Her daughter, Sophia Dorothea, married the Great Elector, Frederic William I. of Prussia.

George II. engaged in the war of the Austrian Succession in behalf of Maria Theresa, and the young Pretender, Charles Edward, seized this opportunity to invade England, and actually advanced within four days' march of London, but, retreating to Scotland, was defeated at Culloden, in 1745, and thus ended all attempts of the Stuarts to regain their ancient crown.

Caroline of Brandenburg-Anspach, Queen of George II., was well educated. She excelled in conversational powers; was skilled in several languages; her discernment of personal character and ability was remarkable; her historical learning considerable; and although more partial to philosophy than to any other pursuit, she was neither pedantic, grave, nor vain of her superior gifts and acquirements. After her death, the king said "that Caroline had been more than his right hand to him, and that he had never seen the woman worthy to buckle her shoe." Their children were Frederic, Prince of Wales, father of George III.; William Augustus, Duke of Cumberland, who won the victory at Culloden; Anne, who married the Prince of Orange; and four other daughters, Amelia, Caroline, Mary, and Louisa.

The family of *Frederic, Prince of Wales*, who married Augusta, Princess of Saxe-Gotha, an excellent woman, were, Augusta, who

married the Prince of Brunswick; George III.; Frederic, Duke of Gloucester; Caroline Matilda, who married Christian VII. of Denmark; the Duke of York; and Louisa.

Louis XV. was five years old when he succeeded his great-grandfather, Louis XIV., in 1715. Philip, Duke of Orleans, nephew of Louis XIV., assumed the regency, during whose time the famous Mississippi scheme of John Law, a Scotchman, ruined nearly half France. In 1720, a dreadful pestilence broke out in Marseilles, in which the good and benevolent Belzunce, Bishop of Marseilles, won undying fame. After the death of the Duke of Orleans, the Duke of Bourbon, a grandson of the great Condé, succeeded to the office of prime minister, but proved so incompetent that Cardinal Fleury took his place. During his administration the king was married to Maria, daughter of Stanislas, the exiled King of Poland, who had taken refuge in France. The French took part with the Elector of Bavaria against Maria Theresa. In 1744, Louis took the command of the army himself, and was present at the reduction of several places; but at Metz he was attacked with a dangerous illness, which produced a general consternation throughout France. His recovery was celebrated with transports of joy, and the surname of *Well-Beloved* was given him on this occasion, when he displayed the feelings of a good heart, exclaiming, very sincerely, as well as very naturally, "How sweet it is to be thus loved! What have I done to deserve it?" Soon after his recovery he beheld from a distance the battle of Fontenoy, in which the allied army of England, Holland, and Austria was defeated by the French under Marshal Saxe, one of the ablest generals of the age.

Marie Charlotte Sophie Félicité, daughter of Stanislas I., King of Poland, was married to Louis XV. in 1725. She was seven years older than the young king, who duly appreciated the excellence of her character. The first years of their marriage were happy, and spent in comparative retirement. The queen attended to the education of her children with exemplary care, and was repaid by their amiable and dutiful conduct; but she had the misfortune to lose several. The Duke of Anjou died at the age of two years and six months; in 1733 she lost the Princess Marie, who also died young; and in 1752, the Princess Henrietta, who was twenty-four years of age. During the queen's illness, which assumed a serious appearance in 1768, the château was surrounded with crowds of anxious inquirers, and Louis exclaimed, "See how much she is loved!" After she had breathed her last sigh, the king, whose esteem for his wife had never forsaken him, advanced towards the bed on which the corpse lay, and once more embraced the

mother of his ten children. Her dresses and other objects were cut in pieces, and preserved by the people as precious relics of the *Sainte Reine*, as they reverently called her.

Philip V., King of Spain, the founder of the Bourbon dynasty in that country, was the second son of the Dauphin Louis (son of Louis XIV.) of France. On the death of Charles II., in 1700, he took possession of the kingdom; and to gain over Savoy to his side, and thus create a diversion in Italy against Austria, he married Maria Louisa, daughter of Victor Amadeus. By the Peace of Utrecht in 1713, the throne of Spain was secured to Philip. In the following year the queen died, and Philip married Elizabeth Farnese of Parma, who immediately induced her husband to commit the reins of government to Cardinal Alberoni: in fact, so much was the weak-minded king under the influence of his talented young wife, that he granted everything she asked. Alberoni's adventurous foreign policy, which at first succeeded in restoring the Spanish rule in Sicily and Sardinia, brought down upon Spain the wrath of the quadruple alliance of France, England, Holland, and Austria, and war was only averted by his being dismissed; but his dismissal was really produced by his neglecting to further the queen's pet scheme of providing sovereignties in Italy for her sons, who seemed to have little chance of obtaining the throne of Spain. The strong bond of union which had hitherto subsisted between Spain and France was broken, in 1725, by the refusal of the Regent of France to fulfill certain matrimonial agreements; but four years afterwards the two countries joined with England and Holland against the Emperor, and in 1731 Philip took measures to recover the old Spanish possessions in Italy. The war which followed at last satisfied the queen, by giving the kingdom of the Two Sicilies to her son Charles, in 1736. On the extinction of the male line of Farnese by the death of Antonio, his niece, Elizabeth, obtained Parma and Piacenza for her son Don Carlos, who exchanged them with Austria for the throne of the Two Sicilies, and took the title of Charles IV. In 1748, Parma and Piacenza were restored to Spain, and became a duchy for the Infante Don Philip, Elizabeth's second son, with a reversion to Austria in case of the failure of his male descendants, or of any of them ascending the Spanish or Neapolitan throne. Philip V. died at Madrid, in July, 1746.

Frederic William I. of Prussia was in almost everything the opposite of his father. He was plain, honest, almost penurious, attentive to business, and passionately fond of military exercises. He supported the cause of Stanislas of Poland, and assisted Austria in her contests with France. By his economy and reforms in finances, he was able to

leave at his death, in 1740, a well-drilled army of seventy thousand soldiers, of whom a large proportion were men of gigantic stature; his exchequer contained nine million thalers, and his kingdom had attained an area of more than forty-five thousand square miles, with a population of more than two million two hundred and forty thousand.

Charles XII., King of Sweden, son of Charles XI., and grandson of Charles X., ascended the throne on the death of his father, in 1697, and, although only fifteen years old, the states declared him of age to assume the reins of government. The neighboring powers thought this a favorable time to humble Sweden, then the great power of the North; and Frederic IV. of Denmark, Augustus II. of Poland, and the Czar Peter I. concluded a league for this object. The Danes began by invading the territory of the Duke of Holstein-Gottorp, who had married Charles's eldest sister, and who applied to him for assistance. The young king immediately approached Copenhagen with such a force as presently compelled the Danes to make peace. He then hastened to meet the Russians; and, although they lay in an intrenched camp beneath the walls of Narva, fifty thousand strong, he stormed their camp, November 30, 1700, with eight thousand Swedes, and defeated them with great slaughter. He next dethroned Augustus II., and procured the election of Stanislas Leszczynski as king of Poland. Augustus supposed himself safe at least in Saxony, his hereditary dominions; but Charles followed him thither, and humbling terms of peace were dictated at Altranstädt, in 1706. Charles then obtained from the Emperor Joseph I. liberty of conscience for the Protestants of Silesia. Leaving Saxony with an army of forty-three thousand men, he directed his course towards Moscow; but at Smolensk the Cossack *hetman* Mazeppa induced him to change his plan and proceed to the Ukraine, in hopes of being joined by the Cossacks. In this, however, he was disappointed, and being defeated by the Russians at Pultowa, in 1709, he fled to Bender, in the Turkish dominions. Augustus II. now revoked the treaty, and the Czar and the King of Denmark assailed the Swedish territories; but the regency in Stockholm took measures for successful resistance. Charles prevailed upon the Porte to declare war on Russia; but afterwards, their suspicions being aroused, they conveyed him to Adrianople, from whence he escaped, and made his way through Hungary and Germany till he reached Stralsund, where he was received with great joy, in 1714. He was soon, however, deprived of Stralsund by the allied Danes, Saxons, Prussians, and Russians. After he had adopted measures for the security of his Swedish coasts, his passion for war led him to attack

Norway. Success again attended his arms, until, in the siege of Fredericshall, November, 1718, he was killed by a musket-ball. On his death, Sweden, exhausted by his wars, ceased to be numbered among the great powers. He was a man capable of comprehensive designs and of great energy in prosecuting them. His abilities appeared not merely in military affairs, but in his schemes for the promotion of trade and manufactures; but his self-willed obstinacy amounted almost to insanity, and he has been termed "a brilliant madman." His habits were exceedingly simple: in eating and drinking he was abstemious, and in the camp he sought no luxuries beyond the fare of the common soldier.

Peter I., the Great, Czar and Emperor of Russia, born at Moscow in 1672, was the eldest child of the Czar Alexis and his second wife, Natalia Kirilowna, daughter of a Russian boyar. Blessed with a healthy constitution and a vigorous mind, Peter attracted general attention while he was but a child; and Alexis wished to pass by his two elder sons, the sickly Feodor and the feeble Ivan, and appoint Peter his successor. Feodor succeeded his father Alexis in 1676, and his reign was signalized by many important reforms, though not by any stirring events. According to his last will, not his imbecile brother Ivan, but his half-brother Peter, whose eminent talents he seems to have appreciated, was to succeed him. But the sister of Ivan, Sophia, plotted a conspiracy, in consequence of which both Ivan and Peter were proclaimed Czars, and crowned in 1682, and she herself obtained the regency. Her further designs against Peter were, however, frustrated, and she was arrested and shut up for the remainder of her life in a convent. Ivan gladly gave up his claim to the throne, which was now mounted by Peter, the creator of the present greatness of Russia, and to whom history has given the appellation of Great. In a brief time he transformed the entire nation. Russia became the most powerful empire of Northern Europe, and henceforth regarded herself, and was generally regarded, as a leading member in the family of European states. Though Peter was all his life under the dominion of ungovernable passions and sensual habits, yet during a great part of his reign he was so exclusively engaged in projecting and carrying out his schemes for the regeneration of Russia, that his gross animal nature had little opportunity of displaying itself. In 1703 he founded a new capital, St. Petersburg, which soon became one of the largest cities of Europe. The battle of Pultowa, in 1709, destroyed the superiority of Sweden, and in the Peace of Nystadt, in 1721, he united Ingria, Carelia, Esthonia, and Livonia with Russia; the two latter being of great importance,

because situated on the Baltic. He was equally successful against Persia, which, in 1723, ceded to him the provinces of Daghestan, Shirvan, and Ghilan, with the towns of Bakoo and Derbent. His wife and successor, Catherine I., who reigned from 1725 to 1727, guided and supported by two favorites of Peter, Mentchikoff and Buturlin, made likewise many important improvements. She increased the army and navy, diminished the taxes, and recalled the exiles from Siberia. She concluded an offensive and defensive alliance with Austria, and sent an ambassador to China to propose a commercial treaty. According to her will, she was succeeded, in 1727, by Peter II., a grandson of Peter the Great, the only son of the unfortunate Alexis, and only eleven years old. Although a council of tutors had been appointed, Prince Mentchikoff seized the whole control of public affairs, but was himself within six months displaced by Prince Dolgoruki, exiled to Siberia, and his property confiscated. After the sudden death of Peter II., in 1730, the crown devolved on Anna, the daughter of Ivan, half-brother of Peter the Great, and widow of the Duke of Courland. An attempt was made to force on her a "capitulation," restricting the rights of the crown in favor of the boyars; but Anna soon discarded the compact, exiled the Princes Dolgoruki and Gallitzin, abolished the privy council, and reorganized the senate on an entirely new basis. Under her reign the northeast coast of Siberia, the Aleutian and Behring's Islands were discovered, and the whole of Siberia incorporated with the empire. In the civil war of Poland, Anna took sides with Augustus III., who, like his father, Augustus the Strong, became a Catholic to secure the crown of Poland, and who promised her favorite, Duke Biron, the duchy of Courland, then a Polish fief. The success of Augustus secured the Russian influence in Polish affairs. After her death, in 1740, her grand-nephew, Ivan VII., a child only a few months old, was proclaimed Czar under the regency of Duke Biron of Courland; but he was soon dethroned by Elizabeth, daughter of Peter the Great and Catherine I., who became Empress in 1741.

Leopold I., Prince of Anhalt-Dessau, called the "old Dessauer," was a Prussian general, and had an honorable share in the victory of Blenheim. Frederic William I. of Prussia was so much attached to him that he kept him constantly near his person. Frederic the Great, in 1742, gave him the chief command in Silesia. In 1745 he gained the bloody battle of Kesseldorf, in consequence of which Dresden was taken, and peace concluded. His prayer before battle was, "O God! assist our side; at least avoid assisting the enemy, and leave the rest to me." When not in the army, he paid great attention to agriculture.

ARTISTS.

Anthony Watteau, who lived 1684-1721, was the most eminent artist in France. His works are truly national, excellent in execution, and very highly valued. Lancret and Pater were his most successful imitators; but Chardin, though influenced by him, had an original style of his own, and his works now stand high.

Sir Godfrey Kneller, born in Lubeck, Germany, was the most celebrated painter in England. His career drew to a close in 1725.

William Hogarth, who lived between 1697 and 1764, developed the leading characteristics of the English school, and is justly entitled to be considered its founder.

MUSIC.

The organ is said to have been introduced into church music by Pope Vitalianus I., in 666. In 757, a great organ was sent as a present to Pepin, by the Byzantine Emperor, Constantine Copronymus, and placed in the church of St. Corneille, at Compiègne. Soon after Charlemagne's time organs became common.

Metastasio, born at Assisi in 1698, began his career as a dramatic poet in 1724. He, with the celebrated singer Maria Romanini (afterwards Bulgarelli), created the modern Italian opera, which consists of poem, music, and decorations. The poetry addresses itself to the mind, the music to the ear, the decorations to the eye; and it is the duty of the three to unite their powers, in order to move and make an impression on the heart.

Palestrina, the most celebrated master of the old Roman school of music, was born in the Roman States in 1524. He was chapel-master in St. Peter's, at Rome. The Council of Trent gave him the task of reforming church music; and he composed three masses on the reformed plan; one of them, known as the mass of Pope Marcellus, may be considered as having saved music to the Church by establishing a type infinitely beyond anything that had preceded it, and, amid all the changes which music has since gone through, it continues to attract admiration.

Thomas Tallis, who is considered the patriarch of English cathedral music, was born at about the same period as the famous ecclesiastical composer Palestrina. Tallis was organist to Henry VIII., Edward VI., Mary, and Elizabeth.

George Frederic Handel, born at Halle, in the duchy of Magdeburg, in 1684, entered the service of the Elector of Hanover in 1710. He afterwards received permission to go to England, where Queen Anne gave him a pension of two hundred pounds per annum. The Elector,

when he became George I., doubled his pension. In 1741 Handel brought out his chef-d'œuvre, the "Oratorio of the Messiah."

Johann Sebastian Bach, born at Eisenach, in Upper Saxony, in 1685, became court-musician at Weimar in 1703. With the exception of Handel, he had no rival as an organist.

John Adolphus Hasse, born at Bergedorf, near Hamburg, in 1699, became the celebrated chapel-master of Augustus, King of Poland, and Elector of Saxony.

Giovanni Battista Pergolesi, born at Pergola in 1710, is called the Domenichino, and by some the Raphael, of music. His far-famed "Stabat Mater Dolorosa," his "Cantate Orfeo," and the "Salve Regina," are his most celebrated works.

Johann Christoph von Gluck, a German musical composer, born in 1714, at Weissenwangen, in the Upper Palatinate, may be considered the father of the modern opera. Burney has characterized him in a single phrase when he calls him "the Michael Angelo of music."

Among the literary men of this time was the celebrated philosopher *Gottfried Wilhelm, Baron of Leibnitz*, born in 1646, at Leipsic, one of the most celebrated scholars Germany has ever produced. For a time he lived at Frankfort, employed by the Elector of Mayence; afterwards went to Paris, and then to England, where he became acquainted with Wallis, Bayle, Oldenburg, and Newton. Then the Duke of Brunswick-Lüneburg gave him the office of counselor, with permission to extend his residence in foreign countries at his pleasure, and in consequence he went to Paris and spent fifteen months studying mathematics. On the death of the Duke of Brunswick, his successor commissioned Leibnitz to write the history of his house. In order to consult the documents necessary for that purpose, Leibnitz went to Vienna, and, as the old counts of Liguria, Tuscany, and Este were sprung from the same source as the House of Brunswick, he went thence to Italy, where he spent three years, and after his return he published a work on the connection between the Houses of Brunswick and Este, which procured him the appointments of privy councilor of justice and historiographer. The Elector of Brandenburg, afterwards Frederic I., King of Prussia, requested his advice in the establishment of the Royal Academy of Science at Berlin, and made him president of this institution in 1700. On the death of the king, three years after, his successor having little taste for the sciences, Leibnitz foresaw the fall of the society, and therefore hastened to Vienna to obtain for it the protection of the Emperor Charles VI. His efforts were unsuccessful, although he was flatteringly received by the Emperor, who had already con-

ferred on him the dignities of baron and of aulic councilor, with a pension of two thousand florins. He also had an interview with the Czar Peter, at Torgau, in 1711, who, in return for his advice concerning the civilization of his vast empire, conferred on him the title of privy councilor, with a pension of one thousand roubles. The life of this individual, so highly favored by fortune, was not entirely free from calamity. His unfortunate controversy with Newton concerning the discovery of the differential calculus, and the pains of the gout, embittered the close of his active life. He died in 1716, at the age of seventy.

Albert von Haller, born at Berne in 1708, was invited by George II., in 1736, to accept the professorship of anatomy, surgery, and botany in the newly-founded university of Göttingen. He was also a poet.

Frederic von Hagedorn, a German poet, was born at Hamburg in 1708. Wieland, in his preface to his poetical works, calls him the German Horace.

Christian Fürchtegott Gellert, a German poet and moralist, was born in the Erzgebirge, in Saxony, in 1715, and obtained a professorship in the University of Leipsic in 1751. Gellert is to be considered one of the pioneers of modern German literature. He marks the transition from the dullness and pedantry of the previous generation of authors to that rich and superabundant life which Goethe and Schiller poured into the national literature.

Johann Lorenz Mosheim, a German ecclesiastical historian, was professor of divinity and chancellor in the University of Göttingen.

George Louis Leclerc, Count de Buffon, one of the most famous naturalists and writers of France, was born at Montbard, in Burgundy, in 1707. His "Natural History" made an epoch in the study of the natural sciences in his time. Louis XV. elevated him to the rank of Count de Buffon, and Louis XVI. treated him with great distinction.

David Hume was a celebrated Scottish metaphysician and historian.

AMERICA.

In 1719, the South Carolinians, burdened with the whole expense of the war with the Spaniards of St. Augustine, threw off the proprietary government and became a royal province. Ten years later the owners of the northern province sold their claims to King George II., and the two Carolinas continued separate.

In 1732, General Oglethorpe founded a colony at the mouth of the Savannah as an asylum of prisoners for debt, orphans, and refugees from persecution.

HOUSE OF AUSTRIA-LORRAINE.

	A.D.
FRANCIS I., great-grandson of the Emperor Ferdinand III.	1745-1765
JOSEPH II., son of Francis I.	1765-1790
LEOPOLD II., son of Francis I.	1790-1792
FRANCIS II., son of Leopold II.	1792-1806

HOUSE OF AUSTRIA-LORRAINE.

FRANCIS I., FRANZ DER ERSTE. A.D. 1745-1765.

"Pro Deo et imperio." (For God and the empire.)

FRANCIS I. (Stephen) was the eldest son of Leopold, Duke of Lorraine, and of a niece of Louis XIV., and the great-grandson of Ferdinand III., Emperor of Germany. In 1729 he succeeded his father as Duke of Lorraine and Bar. The duchy of Lorraine was one of the most extensive and opulent of the minor states of the German Empire. Situated on the Rhine and the Meuse, and extending to the sea, it embraced over ten thousand square miles, and contained more than a million and a half of inhabitants. The Duke Francis Stephen was the heir of an illustrious line, whose lineage could be traced for many centuries.

Germany, France, and Spain wished to have Maria Theresa marry Don Carlos, son of Philip V. of Spain and of Elizabeth Farnese, his second wife. All their arguments, however, were lost upon her, and nothing could induce her to reject Francis Stephen, the grandson of her father's sister, the playmate of her childhood, and now her heroic, fascinating, and devoted lover. But in consequence of the war of the Polish



FRANÇOIS I.

Succession, in which Louis XV. took part in support of his father-in-law, Stanislas, the dethroned King of Poland, Francis was obliged to resign Lorraine to France. The Emperor, however, succeeded in obtaining for his prospective son-in-law a pension of ninety thousand dollars a year from the French court until the death of the aged Duke of Tuscany, John Gasto, the last of the Medici, son of Cosmo III., when Tuscany, one of the most important duchies of Central Italy, should pass into the hands of Francis. While these affairs were progressing, the nuptials of Francis and Maria Theresa took place in Vienna, in February, 1736, and the next year the Duke of Tuscany died, and Francis with his bride hastened to his new home in the palaces of Florence. Though the duke mourned bitterly the loss of his ancestral dominions, Tuscany was no mean inheritance. The duke was absolute monarch of the duchy, which contained about eight thousand square miles and a population of a million. The revenues of the archduchy were four millions of dollars, and the army consisted of six thousand troops.

The affairs of the Emperor Charles VI. were continually growing worse, and Francis was called to Vienna and appointed generalissimo of the army sent against the Turks. Seckendorf, whom he succeeded, was dismissed in disgrace, his want of success being attributed to his being a Protestant, and not to the Emperor's orders, which had thwarted all his judicious plans. The Duke of Lorraine was an exceedingly amiable man, of very courtly manners and winning address; scholarly in his tastes, and not at all fond of the hardships of war, exposure, fatigue, and butchery. Though a man of perhaps more than ordinary intellectual power, he was easily depressed by adversity, and not calculated to brave the fierce storms of disaster.

The Turks, with an army of twenty thousand men, laid siege to Orsova, an important fortress on the Danube, about one hundred miles below Belgrade. The Duke of Lorraine hastened to the relief of this fortress, and after a short but desperate conflict the Turks were repulsed, and, stricken with panic, broke up their camp and retired. This slight success, after so many disasters, caused great exultation, and the Duke of Lorraine was lauded as one of the greatest generals of the age. The pulpits rang with his praises, and it was announced that now that the troops had been placed under a true child of the Church, Providence might be expected to smile. Soon, however, the imperial troops, while incautiously passing through a defile, were assailed by a strong force of the Turks, and compelled to retreat with a loss of three thousand men. The Turks resumed the siege of

Orsova; and the Duke of Lorraine, disheartened, returned to Vienna, leaving the army in charge of the veteran commander Konigsegg. In the spring of 1739 the imperial army again encountered the Turks, at the siege of Belgrade. General Wallis sent word to the Emperor that its surrender was inevitable, whereupon General Schmettaw was sent to his aid, and succeeded in infusing a new spirit into the whole Austrian army. But while General Schmettaw was conducting the defense of Belgrade with vigor and success, he was astounded by the arrival of a courier in his camp, who handed him the following laconic note from Count Neuperg: "Peace was signed this morning between the Emperor, our master, and the Porte. Let hostilities cease, therefore, on the receipt of this. In half an hour I shall follow, and announce the particulars myself." General Schmettaw could hardly repress his indignation, and the troops were furious at the disgraceful peace made with the Turks. The populace of Vienna rose in insurrection, and would have torn down the houses of the ministers who had recommended the peace, had not the military interposed to prevent them.

Care and sorrow hurried the Emperor Charles VI. to the grave. He bore his severe sufferings with patience, and as his physicians were unable to agree respecting the nature of his disease, he said to them, calmly, "Cease your disputes. I shall soon be dead. You can then open my body and ascertain the cause of my death." One after another the members of his family were introduced, and he affectionately bade them adieu, giving to each appropriate words of counsel. To his daughter Maria Theresa, who was not present, he sent his earnest blessing. With the Duke of Lorraine, her husband, he had a private interview of two hours. On the 20th of October, 1740, the Emperor died, and with him the male line of the House of Hapsburg became extinct, after having continued in uninterrupted succession for more than four hundred years.

Maria Theresa, who now succeeded to the crown of Austria, possessed a tall, graceful, and commanding figure; her features were beautiful, and her smile was sweet and winning. She was born to command, combining in her character woman's power of fascination with man's energy. She made her husband co-regent with herself in Austria, but gave him little share in the administration. Francis fought bravely for the rights of his wife in the wars carried on against Frederic the Great of Prussia, and those which ensued in violation of the Pragmatic Sanction, and which would have deprived her of her inheritance had she not been stoutly supported by her Hungarians and found an ally in George II. of England.

Frederic the Great took Silesia, marched into Bohemia, and threatened Prague. Francis hastened with sixty thousand men to the relief of the capital. When he had arrived within nine miles of the city, he learned, to his extreme chagrin, that Prague had been taken by surprise the previous night. That very day the Elector of Bavaria made a triumphal entry into the town, and was crowned King of Bohemia. The electoral diet of Germany met soon after, and, to the great disappointment of Maria Theresa, chose, instead of her husband, the Elector of Bavaria as Emperor of Germany, and also acknowledged him King of Bohemia. He received the imperial crown at Frankfort on the 12th of February, 1742, with the title of Charles VII.

Francis, having been thus thwarted in his plan of relieving Prague, detached a part of his army to keep the enemy in check, and sent General Kevenhuller, with thirty thousand men, to invade and take possession of Bavaria, which was nearly emptied of its troops. By very sagacious movements the general soon became master of all the defiles of the Bavarian mountains. He then pressed forward, overcoming all opposition, and in triumph entered Munich, the capital of Bavaria, the very day on which Charles was chosen Emperor.

Francis's brother, Prince Charles of Lorraine, had long been ardently attached to Mary Anne, younger sister of Maria Theresa. The young prince had greatly distinguished himself in battle; and their nuptials, which was a union of loving hearts, were celebrated in Vienna, with great splendor and rejoicings. Charles was appointed to the government of the Austrian Netherlands; but only one short year passed away when Mary Anne was separated from him by death.

The Emperor Charles VII. died in 1745, and the electoral diet assembled at Frankfort, and Francis, Duke of Lorraine, was chosen Emperor, with the title of Francis I. The queen was at Frankfort when the diet assembled, and exerted all her influence in favor of her husband. When the choice was announced to her, she stepped out on the balcony of the palace, and was the first to shout, "Long live the Emperor, Francis I!" The immense concourse in the streets caught up and re-echoed the cry. The duke, now the Emperor, was at Heidelberg, with an army of sixty thousand men. Maria Theresa hastened to him with her congratulations. The Emperor, no longer a submissive subject, received her with great dignity. His whole army was drawn up in two lines, and the Empress rode between, bowing to the regiments on the right and left with a majesty and grace which all admired.

After the termination of the Seven Years' War, the influence of Maria Theresa and the Emperor Francis was so great that they secured the

election of their son Joseph, who was then twenty-three years of age, to succeed to the throne of the empire upon the death of his father, and he received the title of the King of the Romans. This important election took place at Frankfort, in May, 1764. The health of the Emperor Francis had been failing for some time, and although he was feeble, he went with the court to Innspruck to attend the nuptials of his second son, Leopold, with Maria Louisa, Infanta of Spain, daughter of Charles III. Francis imagined that the bracing air of the Tyrol did not agree with him, and longed to quit the mountains. On the 18th of August symptoms of apoplexy were so threatening that he was urged to be bled. He refused, saying, "I am engaged this evening to sup with Joseph, and I will not disappoint him; but I will be bled tomorrow." The evening came, and, as he was preparing to go, he dropped instantly dead upon the floor. He died at the age of fifty-eight. The marriage festivities were turned into mourning. Maria Theresa prepared his shroud with her own hands, and never after laid aside her weeds of mourning. He was buried at Vienna, in the Capuchin Church. The Empress often descended into the imperial vault, and passed hours in prayer by the side of his coffin.

The character of the Emperor Francis I. was overshadowed by the grandeur of that of his wife; neither was he so ambitious of governing as she was. He interested himself in agriculture, manufactures, and commerce, and let out his money on bond and mortgage. When Maria Theresa was greatly pressed for funds, he would sometimes accept her paper, always taking care to obtain the most unexceptionable security. Moreover, he was very charitable, distributing annually five hundred thousand dollars for the relief of distress. Many anecdotes are related of his disregard of danger and the kindness of his heart. During a terrible conflagration in Vienna, a saltpetre magazine took fire; an explosion was momentarily expected, and the firemen in dismay gave but little aid. The Emperor, regardless of the peril, approached near the fire to give directions. His attendants urged him not to expose his person thus. "Do not be alarmed for me," said he: "think only of those poor creatures who are in such great danger." At another time a fearful inundation swept the valley of the Danube. In several cases families had taken refuge on the tops of their houses, and remained there three days and nights without food. Immense blocks of ice, swept down by the flood, seemed to render it impossible to convey relief to the sufferers. The Emperor threw himself into a boat, and saying, "My example may at least influence others," pushed out into the flood, and successfully rowed to one of

the houses. The boatmen of the Danube were shamed into heroism, and all the people were rescued.

Maria Theresa, his wife, when she succeeded her father, the Emperor Charles VI., found Austria in a deplorable condition. There were not forty thousand dollars in the treasury; the state was enormously in debt; the whole army did not amount to more than thirty thousand men, who were widely dispersed, clamoring for want of pay, and almost destitute of the materials of war. The vintage had been cut off by frost, producing great distress in the country. There was famine in Vienna, and many were starving for want of food; and the peasants in the neighborhood of the metropolis were rising in insurrection, ravaging the fields in search of game. The English ambassador wrote home, "To the ministers, the Turks seem to be already in Hungary; the Hungarians in insurrection; the Bohemians in open revolt; the Elector of Bavaria, with his army, at the gates of Vienna; and France the soul of all these movements. Not only are the ministers in despair, but despair does not seem capable of rousing them to any desperate exertions."

Maria Theresa immediately dispatched couriers to inform the northern powers of her accession to the throne, and troops were forwarded to the frontiers to prevent any hostile invasion from Bavaria. The Pragmatic Sanction was disregarded, and claimant after claimant put forward pretensions to the whole or parts of her possessions. Charles Albert, Elector of Bavaria, laid claim to the Austrian hereditary territories on account of his descent from Anna, eldest daughter of the Emperor Ferdinand I., who by will had appointed that upon the extinction of the Austrian male line the succession to the throne of Bohemia and Austria should devolve upon his daughters and their heirs. Philip V. of Spain asserted his claim in virtue of the *Family Contract* made in 1617. Charles Emanuel, King of Sardinia, a descendant of Catherine, second daughter of Philip II. of Spain, demanded Milan. Augustus III. of Poland made similar demands on account of his wife, who was the eldest daughter of the Emperor Joseph I.

While matters were in this state, to the surprise of all, Frederic the Great of Prussia marched with his army into the Austrian province of Silesia, bordering on Prussia, conquered it, and laid claim to four Silesian principalities. *Maria Theresa* was as much surprised as enraged at this step of the King of Prussia,—the descendant of a vassal of her ancestor, Rudolph of Hapsburg. To punish him for this audacity, she collected an army in Moravia, under General Neuperg; but the want of magazines and the bad roads prevented Neuperg from acting

effectively, and the Austrians were beaten at Mollwitz, in April, 1741. Marshal Belle-Isle, in the name of France, now negotiated with Frederic the Great, at Mollwitz, upon the dissolution of the Austrian monarchy. Bohemia and Upper Austria were to be given to the Elector of Bavaria; Frederic was to receive Upper Silesia and Glatz; Augustus of Poland was to annex to his kingdom Moravia and a part of Silesia; Lombardy was assigned to Spain; and Sardinia was to receive some compensation. England became alarmed at these combinations, and espoused the cause of *Maria Theresa*, who, undismayed in a situation which to every one else seemed desperate, went to Presburg and was crowned Queen of Hungary. An eye-witness thus describes this scene:

"The coronation was magnificent. The queen was all charms. She rode gallantly up the Royal Mount, a hill in the vicinity of Presburg, which the new sovereign ascends on horseback, and, waving a drawn sword, defied the four corners of the world in a manner to show that she had no occasion for that weapon to conquer all who saw her. The antiquated crown received new graces from her head; and the old tattered robe of St. Stephen became her as well as her own rich habit, if diamonds, pearls, and all sorts of precious stones can be called clothes."

A table was spread for a public entertainment, around which were assembled all the dignitaries of the realm,—dukes who could lead thousands of troops into the field; bold barons, with their bronzed followers, whose iron sinews had been toughened in innumerable wars. It was a warm summer day, and the cheek of the youthful queen glowed with the warmth and excitement of the hour. She sat at the head of the table, all queenly in loveliness, and imperial in character. The bold, high-spirited nobles who surrounded her could appreciate her position, assailed by half the monarchies of Europe, and left alone to combat them all. Their chivalrous enthusiasm was fully aroused. The statesmen of Vienna had endeavored to dissuade her from making any appeal to the Hungarians; they feared that the very sight of the youthful and powerless queen would incite these barons to immediate insurrection, and that they would scorn such a sovereign to guide them in the fierce wars which her crown involved. But *Maria Theresa* better understood human nature. She believed that the same barons who had replied haughtily to her father, when he asked their assent to the Pragmatic Sanction, "We are accustomed to be governed by men, and not by women," would rally with enthusiasm around a defenseless woman appealing to them for aid. The cordiality with which she was greeted at the coronation and at the festival encouraged her hopes.

She therefore summoned all the nobles to meet her in the great hall of the castle. The hall was crowded with as brilliant an assemblage of rank and power as Hungary could furnish. The queen entered, accompanied by her retinue. She was dressed in deep mourning, in the Hungarian costume, with the crown of St. Stephen upon her brow, and the regal scimitar at her side. With majestic step she traversed the apartment, and ascended the platform or tribune from whence the kings of Hungary were accustomed to address the nobles. All eyes were fixed upon her, and a solemn silence pervaded the assembly. The Latin language was then, in Hungary, the language of diplomacy and the court. After a pause of a few moments, she addressed them in Latin, saying:

"The disastrous situation of our affairs has moved us to lay before our dear and faithful states of Hungary the recent invasion of Austria, the danger now impending over this kingdom, and a proposal for the consideration of a remedy. The very existence of the kingdom of Hungary, of our own person, of our children, and of our crown is now at stake. Forsaken by all, we place our sole resource in the fidelity, arms, and long-tried valor of the Hungarians, exhorting you, the states and orders, to deliberate without delay in this extreme danger on the most effectual measures for the security of our person, of our children, and of our crown, and to carry them into immediate execution. In regard to ourself, the faithful states and orders of Hungary shall experience our hearty co-operation in all things which may promote the pristine happiness of this ancient kingdom and the honor of the people."

The response was instantaneous and emphatic. A thousand warriors drew their sabres from their scabbards, and thrust them back to the hilts with a clang that ran through the hall, and shouted as with one voice, "Moriamur pro nostra rege, Maria Theresa!"—*We will die for our king, Maria Theresa!*

The queen until now had preserved a calm and composed demeanor, but this outburst of enthusiasm overpowered her, and, forgetting the impassive dignity of the monarch, she burst into tears, which redoubled the enthusiasm. Hungary was now effectually roused, and on they came, half-savage bands, in uncouth garb, speaking unintelligible tongues,—Croats, Pandours, Sclavonians, Warusdinians, and Tolpaches. Germany was astounded at the spectacle of these wild, fierce men, apparently as tameless and as fearless as wolves. The enthusiasm spread throughout Austria, where the young men and the students in the universities espoused the cause of the queen with the greatest ardor.

Vienna was strongly fortified, all hands engaging in the labor, and so rapid was the work, that the allies became alarmed. Besides, they had already begun to quarrel about the division of the anticipated booty.

Frederic of Prussia was the first to propose peace. The Elector of Bavaria was a rival sovereign, and he preferred seeing Austria in the hands of the queen; he was therefore anxious to withdraw from the confederacy, and the queen, as anxious as Frederic to come to an accommodation, sent an ambassador to ascertain his terms. In laconic phrase, characteristic of the man, he returned the following answer: "All Lower Silesia; the river Neiss for the boundary. The town of Neiss as well as Glatz. Beyond the Oder the ancient limits to continue between the duchies of Brieg and Oppeln. Breslau for us. The affairs of religion in *status quo*. No dependence on Bohemia; a cession forever. In return we will proceed no further. We will besiege Neiss for form. The commandant shall surrender and depart. We will pass quietly into winter quarters, and the Austrian army may go where it will. Let the whole be concluded in twelve days."

These terms were complied with, and peace was made at Breslau in 1742. Frederic retained his conquest of Silesia, but the Elector of Bavaria, now the Emperor Charles VII., lost even his own dominions, Bavaria. This success of the Austrian arms, however, raised the apprehensions of Frederic, and the second Silesian war ensued, in 1744, France simultaneously declaring war against England. Louis XV. himself appeared on the field, and Marshal Saxe won battle after battle in the Netherlands; Frederic, also, was successful.

Saxony then became the ally of Maria Theresa. The Emperor Charles VII. died soon after entering Munich, his capital, and his son and successor not only renounced all his claims, but also supported the election of Maria Theresa's husband to the imperial throne. Frederic, confirmed in the possession of Silesia, made peace at Dresden in 1745. The war against France and Spain was continued, Marshal Saxe being victorious at Fontenoy, Raucoux, and Laffeld, while England was successful against the Pretender in the colonies and on the seas.

Elizabeth of Russia declaring for Maria Theresa, the war was favorably terminated by the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748, Austria ceding Parma, Piacenza, and Guastalla to Don Philip, son of Philip V. of Spain, and some districts of the duchy of Milan to Sardinia. Maria Theresa now turned her principal attention to the internal affairs of her states. Following chiefly the advice of her minister Kaunitz, she introduced numerous reforms, organized the administration, alleviated the burdens of the peasantry, abolished torture, created

various institutions of learning, promoted industry and trade, and, though a zealous Catholic herself, subjected the papal bulls to the *placet regium*; and, on the abolition of the order of Jesuits by Pope Clement XIV., in 1773, expelled its members from her dominions. In regard to Hungary, she observed a mild but slowly denationalizing policy. "Maria Theresa," says Szemere, in his "Hungary from 1848 to 1860," "during her long reign, by dint of royal flattery, winning manners, intermarriages of Hungarian and German families, and well-calculated invitations of our principal nobles to a court exclusively German, wellnigh succeeded in denationalizing the Hungarian aristocracy."

The external diplomacy of Kaunitz was also active, and when he finally succeeded in gaining over with Madame de Pompadour the court of France, in addition to the alliance of Russia and Saxony, Frederic the Great sought and obtained the alliance of England, and in 1756 the Seven Years' War began, of which the Prussian monarch was the hero, Loudon and Daun being his most effective Austrian enemies. The war extended to almost all parts of the world, from the coast of Coromandel to Canada. The double peace of Hubertsburg and Verailles terminated it to the advantage of Prussia and England, Frederic remaining now undisputed master of Silesia. Two years later, the Emperor Francis I. died, and was succeeded in the empire by his son, Joseph II., and in Tuscany by Leopold. Joseph, however, enjoyed in the hereditary states of his mother only the rights of a co-regent, though his influence generally prevailed in foreign affairs, as in the case of the annexation of Galicia at the first division of Poland in 1772, and of Bukowina from Turkey in 1777.

New troubles arose in 1777, on the death of Maximilian III., Elector of Bavaria, the last of the younger line of the House of Wittelsbach. Many claimants immediately arose, ambitious of so princely an inheritance. The Emperor Joseph II. was soon at the head of one hundred thousand men, ready to invade Bavaria; and Frederic the Great, with nearly an equal force, marched to meet him. The Empress, weary of war, determined to put an end to hostilities, and without the knowledge of her son, who rejoiced at the prospect of winning fame and adding to his dominions a part, if not all, of Bavaria, wrote privately to Frederic, by her secret messenger, M. Thugut, "I regret exceedingly that the King of Prussia and myself, in our advanced years, are about to tear the gray hairs from each other's heads. My age and my earnest desire to maintain peace are well known. My maternal heart is alarmed for the safety of my sons who are in the army. I take this

step without the knowledge of my son the Emperor, and I entreat that you will not divulge it. I conjure you to unite your efforts with mine to re-establish harmony."

Frederic's reply was courteous: "Baron Thugut has delivered me your majesty's letter, and no one is, or shall be, acquainted with his arrival. It was worthy of your majesty to give such proofs of moderation, after having so heroically maintained the inheritance of your ancestors. The tender attachment you display for your son, the Emperor, and the princes of your blood, deserves the applause of every heart, and augments, if possible, the high consideration I entertain for your majesty. I have added some articles to the propositions of M. Thugut, most of which have been allowed, and others which, I hope, will meet with little difficulty. He will immediately depart for Vienna, and will be able to return in five or six days, during which time I will act with such caution that your imperial majesty may have no cause of apprehension for the safety of any part of your family, and particularly of the Emperor, whom I love and esteem, although our opinions differ in regard to the affairs of Germany."

The Emperor Joseph was bitterly opposed to peace, and thwarted his mother's benevolent intentions in every possible way. Still, the energetic Empress succeeded, and the articles were signed at Teschen, in May, 1779, Austria obtaining of Bavaria merely the Innviertel, with Burgau, and Charles Theodore, the nearest collateral relation of the deceased elector, receiving Bavaria; and thus ended the short war of the Bavarian Succession.

When the Empress heard the news, she exclaimed, "My happiness is complete. I am not partial to Frederic, but I must do him the justice to confess that he has acted nobly and honorably. He promised me to make peace on reasonable terms, and he has kept his word. I am inexpressibly happy to have spared the effusion of so much blood."

The Empress had been suffering for some time with a disease of the lungs; her health now began to decline rapidly, and she died in November, 1780, in the sixty-fourth year of her age.

This illustrious woman had given birth to six sons and ten daughters. Charles, a very promising youth, died at the age of sixteen; Joanna, who was betrothed to the King of Naples, died of smallpox; Josepha was destined to supply her place, but she also fell a victim to that terrible disease; and three others died young. Ten of her children survived her. Joseph, already Emperor, succeeded her on the throne of Austria; Leopold was Grand Duke of Tuscany; Ferdinand, Governor

of Austrian Lombardy, married the daughter and heiress of the Duke of Modena; Maximilian became Elector of Cologne and Münster; Maria Amelia married the Duke of Parma; Maria Christina married Duke Albert of Saxe-Teschen, son of Augustus III. of Poland; Caroline married Ferdinand IV., King of Naples, a mere tool in the hands of his wife, who disgraced herself and her husband by her dissolute life, while she proved a rash opponent of the French; Marie Antoinette, who married Louis XVI. of France, and the story of whose woes has filled the world; Elizabeth became the abbess of the convent at Inn-spruck, founded in that city by her mother after the death of her husband, the Emperor Francis I.; and Anna was Abbess of Prague and Klagenfurt.

CONTEMPORARIES OF THE EMPEROR FRANCIS I. AND MARIA THERESA.

George II. of England took part with Maria Theresa in her contest with the Elector of Bavaria, and led his troops on the Continent in person. The only engagement in which he had a part was in repelling an attack of the French upon his army while posted at Dettingen. In this he displayed great personal courage, exposing himself to the fire of the musketry and cannon, riding along the line and encouraging his men to fight for the honor of England. This was the last occasion on which a king of England exposed his person in battle. Upon his departure the command of the army devolved upon his son, the Duke of Cumberland, who was defeated by the French at the battle of Fontenoy, in 1743. It was through the influence of the king that the British cabinet, at the commencement of the war of the Austrian Succession, voted one million five hundred thousand dollars to aid Maria Theresa. In 1743, Holland, in token of hostility to France, sent the queen a loan of six thousand men, thoroughly equipped for the field; and the King of Sardinia, grateful for his share in the plunder of the French and Spanish provinces in Italy, sent Maria Theresa, in addition to the co-operation of his armies, a gift of a million of dollars. England, also, still anxious to check the growth of France, continued her subsidy of a million and a half, and with fleet and army contributed very efficient military aid. But, after Maria Theresa obtained possession of all her vast ancestral dominions, England, judging that it would endanger the balance of power to place the imperial crown on the brow of her husband, took sides with the Elector of Bavaria, and George II. contracted to pay him, within forty days, three hundred thousand dollars, and to do all in his power to constrain the Queen of Austria to acknowledge his title. The

Seven Years' War was carried on by England with only Frederic the Great for its ally against all the other powers combined. But the sagacity and military skill of Frederic and the energy of Mr. Pitt enabled her to sustain with success the apparently unequal contest. Hanover, which, in the beginning of the war, had been conquered by the French, was recovered, and Frederic established its position as one of the first-rate powers of Europe. The principal battle was that of Minden, fought August 1, 1759, in which the English and Prussians defeated the French. In the East, Lord Clive laid the foundations of the British Empire in India. In the midst of these successes, George II. suddenly died, October 25, 1760, in the seventy-seventh year of his age.

George III., son of Frederic, Prince of Wales, had completed his twenty-second year, when the death of his grandfather placed him on the throne. George III. had no great or brilliant qualities, but he had many good ones. He was kind and charitable; his greatest happiness was in the tranquillity of domestic life, and he was anxious to fulfill his duties to his family with fidelity. But the chief characteristic of his mind was obstinacy, and the pertinacity with which he maintained his opinions was the cause of much injury to his country. Soon after the accession of George III. Mr. Pitt retired from office, and received as a reward for his services the title of the Earl of Chatham. The taxes levied for the support of the wars bore very heavily upon the people of Great Britain; and to ease them of the burden it was resolved to levy taxes upon the colonies, and in 1765 the *Stamp Act* was passed, which led to the Revolution in America. The Earl of Chatham was opposed to this act; but, when the war was actually commenced, he was in favor of maintaining it with vigor and of sending at once a force large enough to put down the so-called rebellion. In 1777, Burgoyne surrendered, and many proposed to withdraw the troops from America; but the king would not consent to relinquish so large a part of his dominions so long as any hope remained of being able to retain it. In this he was sustained by the Earl of Chatham, who appeared in the House of Lords, in 1778, to urge his countrymen to make one more effort. He was answered by the Duke of Richmond. Chatham rose again, with a countenance animated with disdain, and eager to reply; but the excitement was too great for his feeble frame, and, while attempting to speak, he sank down on the floor, and was carried out of the house apparently lifeless. He revived, but it was to live only a few weeks longer. His death under these circumstances made a great impression throughout the whole

country. He was honored with a sumptuous funeral at the public expense, and every possible respect was shown to his memory.

Louis XV. of France signed, but afterwards violated, the Pragmatic Sanction, and became involved in the war of the Austrian Succession, which lasted about two years, and closed with the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748. He was afterwards allied with Austria in the Seven Years' War against Frederic the Great of Prussia. The most useful establishment of the reign of Louis XV. was the royal and splendid school, in which five hundred indigent young men were to be educated at the public expense. Under the same patronage, the sciences, particularly mathematics and astronomy, made considerable advances. But in matters of taste, such as architecture, dress, and paintings, his reign does not deserve any praise. However, Louis improved the appearance and convenience of Paris, and laid out a noble square adjoining the gardens of the Tuilleries. In 1750 the dispute between the Jesuits and Jansenists was revived, and ended in the abolition of the order of Jesuits. In this reign the greatest abuses were practiced by means of the *lettres de cachet*. These were written orders, bearing the seal of the king, banishing the person to whom they were addressed, or ordering him to be confined in some prison. These could be purchased with money at any time from the ruling favorite, and many an innocent victim was consigned to a solitary dungeon, from which, in most cases, death was the only release. Louis died in 1774, and was succeeded by his grandson, Louis XVI.

Maria Leszczynski, wife of Louis XV., died in 1768, three years after the death of her son Louis, the dauphin. Four daughters survived her,—Victoire, Adelaide, Sophie, and Louise. This queen's father, Stanislas, had received, in lieu of Poland, which he renounced, the duchies of Lorraine and Bar. Thus, from being an unprotected exile, whose father sought in France nothing but an asylum from misfortune, this queen became heiress of the most valuable accession which, with the exception of Bretagne and Guienne, any queen had ever brought to the crown.

The most eminent French writers in the reign of Louis XV. were Voltaire and Rousseau.

Ferdinand VI., King of Spain, succeeded his father, Philip V., on the throne; but in 1759, becoming disabled by melancholy from taking any active part in the government, and having no children, he was succeeded on the throne by his half-brother Charles (Charles IV., King of Naples, or The Two Sicilies), who took the title of Charles III. of Spain.

Charles III. was an enlightened prince, with whose reign a brighter era began to dawn for Spain. He published a "fundamental law" preventing the further reunion of Naples with Spain, and gave Naples to his third son, Ferdinand IV., who married Caroline, the daughter of the Empress Maria Theresa. Charles III., having signed the Bourbon family compact with France, in 1761, became involved in the war between France and England, in which, as well as in an expedition against Morocco and Algiers in 1775, and in the expensive siege of Gibraltar during a second war with England, the Spanish arms were not successful; but the internal prosperity of the country was greatly promoted by the wise administration of the king, who was assisted by a number of enlightened statesmen,—as Aranda, Campomanes, Olavidez, and Florida Blanca. Agriculture, commerce, and trade began to revive; and the population during his reign greatly increased. The power of the Inquisition was very much restricted; the Jesuits, in 1767, were expelled from all the Spanish dominions, and the boundaries of the empire enlarged by the addition of Minorca, Louisiana, and Florida.

Elizabeth, Empress of Russia, daughter of Peter the Great, after the death of the Empress Anna, her cousin, in 1740, agreed to a plot formed by Lestocq, a surgeon, and the Marquis de la Chetardie, the French ambassador, to place her on the throne. They won over the officers of the army; and on the night of the 5th of December, 1741, the regent and her husband were taken into custody, and the infant Ivan conveyed to Schlüsselberg. By eight o'clock the next morning the revolution was completed, and in the afternoon all the troops did homage to the new Empress. Elizabeth, however, did not possess the qualities requisite in a ruler. She lacked energy, knowledge, and love of business, and allowed herself to be guided by favorites. In order to strengthen her position, she took pains to win over her nephew, the young prince Peter, the son of her sister, the Duchess of Holstein-Gottorp. She summoned him to St. Petersburg in 1742, and proclaimed him her successor. Elizabeth took part in the Austrian war of Succession, and, in spite of the opposition of France, dispatched an army of thirty-seven thousand men to the assistance of Maria Theresa, and thereby hastened the conclusion of the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748. Elizabeth showed herself less placable towards Frederic the Great, against whom she cherished a personal enmity, excited by some sarcastic expressions he had employed respecting her. At the commencement of the Seven Years' War, she allied herself with Austria and France, and marched her troops into Prussia, where they

won the battles of Grossjägerndorf and Kunersdorf, and took possession of Berlin, but without any decisive result. Elizabeth died before the expiration of the war, in January, 1762. She founded the University of Moscow, and the Academy of Art at St. Petersburg. Though no person was put to death during her reign, the most shocking punishments were inflicted, and thousands were exiled to Siberia and Kamtchatka.

Peter III., grandson of Peter the Great, being the son of his eldest daughter Anna, the wife of Karl Friedrich, Duke of Holstein-Gottorp, was publicly proclaimed heir to the throne of Russia by the Empress Elizabeth, in 1742. From that time he lived at the Russian court, and in 1745, in obedience to the wishes of the Empress, married Sophia Augusta, a princess of Anhalt-Zerbst, who, on entering the Greek Church, assumed the name of Catharina Alexiowna. Peter succeeded Church, assumed the name of Catharina Alexiowna. Peter succeeded Elizabeth in 1762; and his first act of authority was to withdraw from the confederate league of France, Austria, and Russia against Prussia, restoring to the heroic monarch of Prussia the provinces of Prussia and Proper, which had been conquered during the Seven Years' War, and sending to his aid a force of fifteen thousand men; a line of conduct which seems to have been prompted solely by his admiration for Frederic the Great. He also recalled many political exiles from Siberia; abolished the sanguinary law which proscribed any one who should utter a word against the Greek Church, the Czar, or the government; and then attempted the realization of his favorite project, which was to recover from Denmark that portion of Slesvig which had been ceded to her in 1713, and to avenge the tyranny and annoyances to which his family of Holstein-Gottorp had been subjected. But before the army he had dispatched could reach its destination a formidable conspiracy, headed by his wife and supported by the principal nobles, had broken out against him. This conspiracy originated in the general discontent which was felt at Peter's conduct and government; for the nobility were offended at his liberal innovations and the preference he showed for Germans; the people and clergy, at his indifference to the national religion, and his ill-concealed contempt for Russian manners and customs; while the whole nation murmured at his servility to Frederic of Prussia. His wife had deeper cause for dislike; for though he was himself addicted to drunkenness and debauchery, he never ceased to reproach her with her infidelities, and had even planned to divorce her, disinherit her son Paul, and elevate his favorite, Elizabeth Woronzof, to the conjugal throne. The revolution broke out on the night of the 8th of July, 1762; Peter was declared to

have forfeited his crown, and his wife Catherine was proclaimed Empress, as Catherine II., by the guards, the clergy, and the nobility. Peter, who was then at Oranienbaum, neglected the counsels of Field-Marshal Männich, who proposed to march at once upon the capital at the head of the regiments which remained faithful, or at any rate to take possession of Cronstadt and the fleet, and soon he found even the opportunity for flight cut off, and was compelled to submit. He abdicated the throne on the 10th of July, and on the 14th of the same month was put to death by Alexis Orloff to secure the safety of the conspirators.

Catherine II., a woman of remarkable ability, was born at Stettin, in 1729, where her father, Christian Augustus, Prince of Anhalt-Zerbst and Prussian field-marshall, was governor. Her marriage with the Emperor Peter III. was celebrated in 1745. It was not a happy one, but Catherine found recreation in the improvement of her mind. She was endowed with uncommon strength of character; but the ardor of her temperament and the ill treatment of her husband led her into errors which had an injurious influence on her whole political life. After she was proclaimed Empress, she won the affections of the people by flattering their vanity and showing great respect for their religion. She caused herself to be crowned at Moscow with great pomp, and, after her return to St. Petersburg, devoted herself to the promotion of agriculture and commerce and the creation of a naval force; she improved the laws, and showed the greatest activity in the administration of the internal affairs of her country. She forced the Courlanders to displace their new duke, Charles of Saxony, and recall Biren; and after the death of Augustus III., King of Poland, she was the means of Stanislas Poniatowski's being crowned in Warsaw. The attempt of France to form a party in Poland against Russia served only to advance Catherine's plans. The war to which the Porte was instigated had the same result. The Turks were beaten. The Russian flag was victorious on the Greek seas, and plans of re-establishing the republics of Sparta and Athens, as a check to the Ottoman power, occupied her mind. The march of Austrian troops into Poland inspired her with a desire to aggrandize herself in that quarter. She therefore entered into an agreement with the courts of Berlin and Vienna for the division of the country. This event occurred at the time when Kaunitz, who coincided with the Emperor Joseph against the opinion of Maria Theresa respecting the partition of Poland, obtained a promise from Russia, that in the peace about to be concluded with Turkey they would not insist upon retaining possession of Moldavia

and Wallachia, and would concede the immensely rich salt-works in Poland to Austria. The territories seized by these three powers, in 1772, were as follows:

Russia took 42,000 English square miles, with a population of 1,800,000.

Prussia took 13,000 English square miles, with a population of 416,000.

Austria took 27,000 English square miles, with a population of 2,700,000.

At the same time Catherine abandoned all her conquests in Turkey, with the exception of Azof, Taganrog, and Kinburn; and in the peace which she concluded with the Porte in 1774 she secured to herself the free navigation of the Black Sea, and stipulated for the independence of the Crimea, thus making the Crimea virtually dependent on Russia.

Frederic II., the Great, of Prussia, was the son of Frederic William I. and the Princess Sophia Dorothea, daughter of George I. of England. His early years were spent under the restraints of an irksome military training and a rigid system of education. His impatience under this discipline, his taste for music and French literature, and his devotion to his mother gave rise to dissensions between father and son. On his accession to the throne, in 1740, he laid aside the peaceful pursuits which had occupied his time at Ruppin, and at once gave evidence of his talents as a legislator, and his determination to take an active share in the political and warlike movements of the age. His first military exploit was to gain a victory at Mollwitz over the Austrians, in 1741, which nearly decided the fate of Silesia, and secured to Prussia the alliance of France and Bohemia. Another victory over the troops of Maria Theresa made him master of Upper and Lower Silesia, and closed the first Silesian war. The second Silesian war, which ended in 1745, and from which Frederic retired with greatly augmented territories and the reputation of being one of the first commanders of the age, was followed by a peace of eleven years, which he devoted to the improvement of the various departments of government, and of the nation generally, to the organization of his army, and the indulgence of his literary tastes. The third Silesian, or Seven Years' War, which obliged Frederic to lay aside his flute, was begun in 1756 by the invasion of Saxony,—a step to which he was driven by the fear that he was to be deprived of Silesia by the allied confederation of France, Austria, Saxony, and Russia. This contest, which was one of the most remarkable of modern times, secured to Frederic a decided influence in the affairs of Europe generally, as the natural result of the pre-

minent genius which he had shown both under defeat and victory; but although this war crippled the powers of all engaged in it, it left the balance of European politics unchanged. It required all the skill and inventive genius of Frederic to repair the evils which his country had suffered by the war. In 1772 he shared in the first partition of Poland, and obtained as his portion all Polish Prussia and a part of Great Poland; and by the treaty of Teschen, in 1779, Austria was obliged to consent to the union of the Franconian provinces with Prussia, and he was thus enabled to leave to his nephew and successor a powerful and well-organized kingdom, one-half larger in area than it had been at his own accession, with a full treasury, and an army of two hundred thousand men. He died at the château of Sans Souci, August 17, 1786. The courage, fertility of resource, and indomitable resolution of Frederic the Great cannot be too highly praised. Not the least wonderful of his achievements was his contriving to carry on his bloody campaigns without incurring a penny of debt. A true spirit of self-sacrifice—though not, perhaps, for the highest ends—was in him. Never was king more liberal towards his subjects. In Silesia, where war had nearly ruined the inhabitants, he once remitted the taxes for six months, and in Pomerania and New Brandenburg for two years, while his government was carried on with rigid economy, such as Europe had never before witnessed. But not only was his government economical, it was essentially just. Religious persecution was unknown, civil order everywhere prevailed, property was secure, and the press was free. On the other hand, education had made him French in all his ideas and prejudices, and in those days to be French was to be skeptical. He despised his native language as semi-barbaric, though before his death Goethe had published his "Götz von Berlichingen," "Sorrows of Werther," "Iphigenia in Tauris," and many of his finest lyrics; while Kant, besides a variety of lesser works, had given to the world his masterpiece, the "Critique of Pure Reason." Frederic was himself a voluminous writer. His "Mémoires pour servir à l'Histoire de Brandenbourg," and the "Histoire de la Guerre de Sept Ans," exhibit, perhaps, the greatest powers of description, but all his works evince talent of no common order.

Charles Theodore, who succeeded Maximilian III. (Joseph) in Bavaria, inherited the palatinate of Sulzbach from his father, John Christian; the marquisate of Bergen-op-Zoom from his mother; Neuburg from his uncle, Karl Philip, the Elector-Palatine, who removed his court from Heidelberg to Mannheim, in 1720, because he could not deprive the Protestants of their privileges in Heidelberg; and Neuburg

zu Neuburg in right of his wife, Maria Elizabeth. Charles Theodore was a patron of learning and the fine arts; founded the Düsseldorf Academy of Painting, and several institutions of learning; and in 1743 made the château of Schwetzingen, near Mannheim, his summer residence, and employed the twenty following years and vast sums of money in beautifying it. Maximilian III., having no children, confirmed all the contracts relating to the inheritance which had been made with the electoral line of the Palatinate since the treaty of Pavia, in 1329. In compliance with the treaties of the House of Wittelsbach, as well as with the terms of the Peace of Westphalia, the right of succession in Bavaria reverted, undeniably, to the Elector of the Palatinate when the Wittelsbach-Bavarian line became extinct on the death of Maximilian in 1777. Austria then laid claim to Lower Bavaria, and attempted to support her demands by arms, without any previous declaration of war. Charles Theodore, being without children, and as he would be obliged to live in Munich, was persuaded to sign a treaty, in 1778, formally renouncing the Bavarian succession; but the Duke of Deux-Ponts, or, as it is called in German, Zweibrücken, the nearest agnate and presumptive heir, encouraged by Frederic the Great, refused to acknowledge the renunciation. This was the origin of the war of the Bavarian Succession, which was terminated without bloodshed (owing chiefly to the Russian declaration of war against Austria) by the Peace of Teschen, in 1779. This war was called in derision the Bavarian Rumpel (racket), and by the soldiers the *Potato-War*, as most of the fighting was to obtain possession of fields of potatoes. The possession of Bavaria, from which Austria obtained eight hundred square miles, was secured to the Elector-Palatine of Bavaria, according to the family compacts. By this union of the Bavarian dominions the eighth electorate became extinct, according to the terms of the Peace of Westphalia.

Augustus III., King of Poland and Elector of Saxony, only son of Augustus the Strong and of Eberhardine, a princess of the House of Brandenburg-Bayreuth, was carefully educated by his mother in the Protestant faith. At the age of fifteen he left her tutelage for a tour through Germany, France, and Italy, where he changed his religion, secretly professing Catholicism at Bologna, in 1712, though it was not publicly known in Saxony until five years later. It is possible that thoughts of the Polish crown, and of an alliance with an Austrian princess, may have influenced him to take this step. After succeeding his father in the electorate of Saxony, in 1733, he was chosen King of Poland by a part of the nobility, and triumphing over the rival claims of Stanislas Leszczynski, supported by Louis XV., was unanimously pro-

claimed three years later. Augustus III. inherited his father's sumptuous tastes, though not his talents; and his love of art, cultivated by his Italian tour, enriched the gallery of Dresden with noble paintings. Duke Francis III. of Modena, being in want of money, offered his distinguished collection, which consisted of about one hundred pictures, for sale. Augustus bought them for three hundred thousand dollars. Seven years later he purchased the greatest creation of Christian art, and could hardly wait for it to be unpacked and placed in the gallery, but opened the box in the castle in order to see Raphael's "Madonna." This picture was carried into the throne-room, and, as the best light for it was where the throne stood, the attendants hesitated; but Augustus took hold of the throne and pushed it aside with his own hands, saying, "Room for the great Raphael!" This picture cost sixty thousand thalers. Augustus left the government of Saxony entirely to his prime minister, Count von Brühl, whose whole political system consisted in complete dependence upon Russia. In 1742, alarmed at the increased power Prussia had obtained by the conquest of Silesia, Augustus formed an alliance with Maria Theresa, and, by the secret treaty of Leipsic, engaged to furnish her with fifty thousand men. But their united troops were completely routed by the Prussians in 1745; and Frederic the Great pushing on into Saxony, Augustus had to escape from his capital, saving his art-treasures, but leaving his state papers in the hands of the conqueror. In 1746 the Peace of Dresden restored Saxony to him, but the close of the year saw him again embroiled with Prussia. Joining the camp at Pirna, he narrowly escaped being taken prisoner, and had to flee to Poland, where his popularity, never very great, was much diminished by his recent reverses in Saxony, added to which the Empress Catherine of Russia used every effort to dislodge him, as being an ally of France. At the conclusion of the Peace of Hubertsburg, Augustus returned to Dresden, where he died in 1763. His son Frederic Christian succeeded him in Saxony, and Stanislaus Poniatowski became King of Poland.

In America, the war of the Austrian Succession, in 1745, led to the capture of Louisburg by the English, and, although it was restored by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, the discovery of English colonial strength and the spirit of French aggression led to the more important French and Indian war, which began in 1755. The French claimed the valley of the Mississippi, and had erected a chain of forts from Montreal to New Orleans. They captured the English pioneers on the Ohio River, and built a fort on the present site of Pittsburg, which they named Fort Du Quesne. George Washington, with a force from Virginia,

defeated an advanced party of the French, but was compelled by them to retreat from Fort Necessity. The first Colonial Congress met at Albany, in 1754, to provide against Indian hostilities, when a plan of confederation was submitted by Dr. Franklin. In 1755, General Braddock was appointed to command all the English and Colonial forces in America. He marched against Fort Du Quesne, and was defeated and slain by a large force of Indians on the Monongahela. Washington at the head of the Virginia Blues distinguished himself, checked the enemy, and enabled the shattered British army to retreat. The next year the French under the Marquis de Montcalm captured Forts Oswego and William Henry. In 1758 the English captured Louisburg, with the islands of Cape Breton and Prince Edward, the French fort and shipping at Frontenac, now called Kingston, and Fort Du Quesne, which they named Pittsburg, in honor of William Pitt, the Earl of Chatham. In 1759, General Johnson took Fort Niagara; and General Wolfe captured Quebec, with its vast stores and shipping. In this siege both Wolfe and Montcalm were mortally wounded. The year following, Montreal surrendered, and England possessed the whole continent north of Mexico. Spain ceded Florida, and the war closed with the treaty of Paris, in 1763.

In 1765 the English Parliament imposed duties on sugar, coffee, tea, etc., and required the use of government stamps on all legal papers. This led to the assembling of the second Colonial Congress, which met in New York and agreed upon a Declaration of Rights, a memorial to both houses of parliament, and a petition to the king. A change occurring in the ministry, the Stamp Act was repealed, but with a reassertion of the right of parliament to tax the colonies. In 1775 the first battle of the Revolution was fought, at Lexington. On the 4th of July, 1776, the Declaration of Independence by the United Colonies was adopted and published to the world; and in 1778 France made a treaty of alliance with the United States of America.

DISTINGUISHED PERSONS.

Among the imperial generals were Prince Charles of Lorraine, Count von Daun, a very distinguished and successful officer in the Seven Years' War, and Baron Loudon, one of Austria's most talented generals, who entered the service as captain in the corps of Pandours, under the partisan chief Trenck, in 1742. In 1758 he was made lieutenant field-marshal. For the conquest of Belgrade, Joseph II. bestowed on him the star of the order of Maria Theresa, and after his death Leopold II. purchased it from his widow for fifty thousand

florins. He was also given the title of generalissimo, which had not been conferred on any one since Prince Eugene. In private life he was moderate and extremely modest. The Duke of Aremberg, in reply to a question of the Empress, at a court party, "Where is Loudon?" answered, "There he is, behind the door, as usual, quite ashamed of having so much merit."

The greatest Prussian generals were Prince Henry of Prussia, brother of Frederic the Great, Ferdinand of Brunswick, Baron Trenck, who distinguished himself in the Seven Years' War, and ended his adventurous life in Paris, where he was suspected of being an emissary of Prussia, and guillotined, in 1794, Field-Marshal Schwerin, and Hans Joachim von Ziethen, Prussian general of cavalry, and knight of the order of the Black Eagle. On one occasion he marched his soldiers through the Austrian army, having ordered them to turn their cloaks inside out, so that the white lining looked like the Austrian uniform.

Count Maurice Saxe, a marshal of France, born in Dresden, was the natural son of Augustus I. (II.), Elector of Saxony and King of Poland, by the Swedish Countess of Königsmark, and at twelve years of age served in the army of the allies, commanded by Marlborough and Prince Eugene. He was present at the sieges of Tournay and Mons, and the battle of Malplaquet, and before the age of fifteen was placed by his father in command of a regiment of cavalry, with which he did good service at the siege of Stralsund. He fought under Eugene against the Turks. In 1720 he went to Paris, and received from the Duke of Orleans the command of a regiment. In the general war which broke out in 1740 he served with credit in Bohemia and on the Rhine, and in 1743 was appointed a marshal of France. In 1744 he held his ground at the head of an army in Flanders against forces thrice as numerous as his own, retaining all the conquests previously made by the French, and in the following year he was appointed general-in-chief of the army in Flanders, amounting to one hundred thousand men. The campaign commenced with the siege of Tournay, and upon the approach of the allies, under the Duke of Cumberland, to the support of the town, Saxe gave them battle at Fontenoy, May 11, 1745, and after an obstinate contest gained a memorable victory, which led to the speedy conquest of all Belgium. On this occasion, though suffering so severely from an attack of the dropsy as to be obliged to travel in a litter, he caused himself to be conveyed to all parts of the field, and superintended in person the operations of the day. For the victory gained at Roucoux over the allies under Charles of Lorraine, he was made marshal-

general of France, and Louis XV. bestowed upon him the estates of Chambord, which yielded an annual revenue of one hundred thousand francs. In the campaigns of 1747-8, Saxe sustained his reputation by the capture of Laufeld, Bergen-op-Zoom, and Maestricht, which led to the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748. He passed the rest of his life in princely style on his estate. Saxe was one of the ablest generals of his age, and, like his father, August the Strong, possessed immense bodily strength. He died prematurely at Chambord, in 1750, from the effects of debauchery.

Among the learned men who distinguished this period was *Immanuel Kant*, born in Königsberg in 1724. Besides the great merits of Kant in regard to intellectual philosophy, we owe him much for his virtue and inflexible morality, which he placed again on their true elevated basis, after they had been referred exclusively to interest by Helvetius and others.

Gotthold Ephraim Lessing, born at Kamentz, a town in Upper Lusatia, in 1729, was remarkable for the versatility of his genius, and contributed more than any other individual to the regeneration of German literature. His language is a model of German prose.

Friedrich Gottlieb Klopstock, one of the most celebrated German poets, was born at Quedlinburg in 1724. As a lyrical writer, Klopstock is perhaps among the most successful of any age. His "Messiah" announced him a rival of Milton. His "Hermann's Schlacht" (Battle of Arminius) is justly celebrated. His "Bardien" are dramatized epics. The choruses possess the highest lyrical beauty, and breathe the most ardent patriotism and independence of feeling. Klopstock idealized the German character as no other has ever done; and he created for the Germans a new, strong, free, and genuine poetic language.

Johann Wolfgang von Goethe, the acknowledged prince of German poets, and one of the most highly gifted and variously accomplished men of the eighteenth century, was born in the year 1749, at Frankfurt-on-the-Main. It is as poet, critic, thinker, and original observer of nature, all combined in one admirable harmony, that his rare excellence consists. We do not find in literary history any intellect that can fitly be placed upon the same platform with Goethe; that presents in such grand and graceful completeness so much severe thought combined with so much luxuriant imagination; so much accurate science with so much playful fancy; so much simplicity with so much art; so much freshness and originality of productive power with so much justness and comprehensiveness of critical judgment. His first great work was "Götz von Berlichingen," after which he wrote "Iphigenia,"

"Egmont," "Tasso," and the "Venetian and Roman Elegies." His great work, "Faust," is essentially a German poem,—it is the great drama of that moral and metaphysical questioning which thoughtful minds must go through in all times and places, but which has received the fullest and most fruitful development in modern Germany. Of Goethe's other poetical works, "Iphigenia," "Hermann and Dorothea," and "Tasso" are those which most strongly bear the type of the ripe manhood of the author. He died in 1832, in the eighty-fourth year of his age.

Johann Gottfried von Herder, a classical German author, was born in 1744, at Mohrungen, in Eastern Prussia. His father permitted him to read only the Bible and the hymn-book, but an insatiable thirst for learning led him to prosecute his studies in secret. Kant permitted him to hear all his lectures gratis. Herder's greatest work is his *Ideen zur Philosophie der Geschichte der Menschheit*. "In early years," says Herder, "when the fields of knowledge lay before me with all the glow of a morning sun, from which the meridian sun of life takes away so much of the charm, the idea often occurred to my mind, whether, like other great subjects of thought, each of which has its philosophy and science, that subject also which lies nearest to our hearts—the history of mankind, viewed as a whole—might not also have its philosophy and science. Everything reminded me of this idea,—metaphysics and morals, natural philosophy and natural history; lastly, and most powerfully, religion." In poetry Herder effected more by his various accomplishments, his vast knowledge and fine taste, than by creative power; yet he has produced some charming songs; and his *Cid*, a collection of Spanish romances into a kind of epic, is one of the most popular poems of Germany. He died in 1803, and in 1819 the Grand Duke of Weimar ordered a tablet of cast iron to be put on his grave with the words, *Licht, Liebe, Leben*,—Light, Love, Life.

Johann Christoph Friedrich von Schiller, a German poet, dramatist, and historian, was born at Marbach, Würtemberg, in 1759, and died in Weimar, in 1805. He wrote a "History of the Thirty Years' War," the drama of "Wallenstein," which was divided into three parts,—"Wallenstein's Camp," a piece in one act, serving as an introduction, "The Piccolomini," and "The Death of Wallenstein," each in five acts. His design was to embody the more enlarged notions which experience had given him of men, especially which history had given him of generals and statesmen; and, while putting such characters in action, to represent whatever was or could be made poetical in the

stormy period of the "Thirty Years' War." This work is, on the whole, his greatest performance. At Weimar he produced three new dramas, "The Maid of Orleans," "The Bride of Messina," and "Marie Stuart," besides his noble "Song of the Bell," and other poetical pieces. His last work, "William Tell," is considered by many his greatest, as it undoubtedly is his most popular, drama.

Gottfried August Bürger, one of the most popular German poets, was born in 1748, near Halberstadt, in Prussian Saxony. With regard to the intrinsic merits of his poems, which consist chiefly of ballads and songs, even German critics, such as Schiller, Gervinus, and Vilmar, differ widely in their opinions; but all agree in praising the popular style and fluent and spirited versification of his ballads,—"Leonora," "Lenardo and Blandine," the "Parson's Daughter of Taubenhayn," and the "Wild Huntsman." Though a popular writer, Bürger was very careful as to style, and was one of the first who wrote good hexameter verse in German.

Christoph Martin Wieland, a German poet and writer, was born in the town of Biberach, in Suabia, in 1733. He was appointed tutor to the son of the Duchess of Weimar, and with Goethe and Herder labored with great activity for more than twenty years.

Anna Amalia, Duchess of Saxe-Weimar, an amiable lady, and a generous patron of literature, was left a widow in the second year of her marriage, in 1758. Her judicious rule, as guardian of her infant son, enabled the country to recover from the effects of the Seven Years' War, while her efforts were no less effectual in promoting the education of her people. She appointed Wieland tutor to her son, afterwards duke, and attracted to Weimar such men as Herder, Goethe, Knebel, Bottiger, Musæus, and Schiller, thus forming a galaxy of genius such as no other single court, perhaps, was ever graced with. How much the fine qualities of head and heart possessed by the duchess herself contributed to this success is shown by the fact that when she resigned the government into the hands of her son, in 1775, she continued to be surrounded by the same society. She has the high distinction of having honored and encouraged the greatest writers that Germany has produced.

Joseph Haydn, the father of modern orchestral music, was born in 1732, at the village of Rohrau, on the borders of Hungary and Austria. At the age of eight years he became a chorister-boy in St. Stephen's in Vienna. At the age of ten he composed pieces for six or eight voices. "I then thought," he afterwards remarked, laughingly, "that voices the blacker the paper the finer the music." When the six first sonatas of Emanuel Bach fell into his hands, "I did not leave the harpsi-

chord," said he, "until they were played through from beginning to end; and any one who knows me must perceive that I owe much to Emanuel Bach,—that I have carefully studied his style; and he himself once paid me a compliment about it." Haydn had the good fortune to become acquainted with Mlle. de Martinez, the friend of Metastasio; and for awhile the first opera-poet of the age and the best composer of symphonies lived in the same house. Haydn was eighteen years old when he composed his first quartette, which met with general success. At the age of nineteen he composed "The Devil on Two Sticks," an opera, which was forbidden, on account of its satirical character, after its third representation. He had now become so celebrated that Prince Esterhazy placed him at the head of his private chapel. For this prince he composed some beautiful symphonies, and the greatest part of his fine quartettes. He visited London twice,—his second journey being made in 1794. He found a splendid reception, and the University of Oxford conferred upon him the degree of Doctor of Music. On his return from England he purchased a small house and garden in one of the suburbs of Vienna. Here he composed "The Creation," and "The Seasons." The former work, which is full of the fire of youth, he finished in his sixty-fifth year. Some time before his death, which occurred in 1809, the Dilettanti Society in Vienna concluded their winter concerts with a splendid performance of the Creation, to which Haydn was invited. His reception made a great impression upon him, weakened as he was by age, but his own work affected him still more deeply; and at the passage, "It was light," overpowered by the harmony which he had himself created, the tears ran down his cheeks, and, with upraised arms, he cried, "Not from me, but thence does all this come!" He sank under the weight of his feelings, and was obliged to be carried out.

Claude Joseph Vernet, who excelled all his contemporaries in sea-pieces, was born at Avignon in 1714. When eighteen years old he went to Rome, and remained in Italy twenty years, in a close friendship with Pergolesi, who composed part of his *Stabat Mater* in his painting-room. At length the splendid offers of the French government induced him to return to France, in 1752, where he was to paint the most important ports. Thus originated that excellent collection which is yet in the Louvre. Between 1752 and 1789, when he died, he is said to have painted no less than two hundred pictures. He was made a member of the French Academy, and, in 1766, counselor; but these distinctions and a lodging in the Louvre were the only favors bestowed upon him by the king.

JOSEPH II., JOSEPH DER ZWEITE. A.D. 1765-1790.

"Virtute et exemplo." (Virtue and example.)



JOSEPH II.

and he imbibed an invincible aversion to the clergy. She set a great value on birth, and he early acquired a dislike for undeserved privileges. In the mean time, the Seven Years' War having broken out, every preparation was made for the young prince to join the army, when Maria Theresa, to his inexpressible chagrin, recalled the order. In 1764 Joseph was elected King of the Romans, and on the death of his father, in 1765, he became German Emperor. His mother declared him co-regent in the hereditary estates of the House of Austria, and gave him the command of the army; but the real authority remained in her hands. During the war Joseph had cause to admire the great enemy of his house, Frederic the Great. Animated by this example,

JOSEPH II., son of Francis I. and Maria Theresa, was born in 1741, at a time when Frederic the Great had already conquered half of Silesia, and the Bavarian army was approaching the Austrian frontiers, when the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle restored the sinking state. Joseph was inferior to his brother Leopold in learning, but he displayed an active and penetrating mind, and made much progress, particularly in the languages, mathematics, and music. His lively temperament often brought him into collision with his mother, whom he obeyed from respect, but without conviction, and with secret reluctance. He observed how much her devotional spirit was abused,

he entered on his elevated career; but, as he had but little real power, excepting in military affairs, in which, with the aid of Lascy, he introduced some improvements, he employed his time in traveling and becoming acquainted with his states. On one of these journeys, under the title of Count Falkenstein, he visited Frederic the Great in his camp at Neisse. The two monarchs, dispensing with ceremonies, met on terms of familiarity like friends. In the following year the Emperor, in his camp, received a visit from Frederic.

In 1777, Joseph made a journey to Paris, where he spent six weeks, and everybody was charmed with him. At the end of this year the Elector of Bavaria died, and the war of the Bavarian Succession broke out between Prussia and Austria, to which Maria Theresa put an end, without the knowledge and contrary to the wishes of her son, who was desirous of measuring himself with his great adversary. In 1780, Joseph came into the possession of full dominion over his hereditary states at the age of forty, and was thus the sovereign of more than twenty-two millions of men, with a fine army. His people adored him; the nobility and clergy alone had reason to fear him. Joseph had drawn on himself their hatred by ordinances which were in many respects excellent. He allowed a greater freedom of the press, put an end to the connection between Rome and the religious orders, diminished the pensions, abolished bondage, and suppressed nunneries and many monasteries, particularly those in which there were no schools, or the sick were not taken care of, or the monks did not preach. In the spring of 1782, Pope Pius VI. made a visit to Vienna, with the idea of checking the reforms of the Emperor. Joseph afterwards returned his visit at Rome, still continuing to repress monasteries, so that in eight years the number belonging to the different orders had fallen from sixty-three thousand to twenty-seven thousand. Hence the relations of the Pope with him were far from amicable. All branches of the government, public education, the police, the state of the clergy, and the peasantry, were reformed. By a new code of laws capital punishments were abolished. His reforms in Hungary, which he wished to render uniform with his German states, caused a rebellion of the Wallachians, which he was enabled to quell only by the execution of its leaders, Hora and Kloska. Then followed, in 1784, the dispute with Holland concerning the free navigation of the Scheldt, and the negotiations for the exchange of the Netherlands for Bavaria, against which the confederacy of the German princes was formed, in 1785. In 1787, under the title of Count Falkenstein, Joseph made a journey into the Crimea, where Catherine II. gave him a splendid reception at Cherson.

After his return, he experienced a series of misfortunes. Disturbances having broken out in the Netherlands, Joseph discontinued his reforms, and quiet seemed to be restored. In 1788 he declared war against the Turks. By the defeat at Lugo the army was obliged to retreat, and suffered greatly in consequence of the heat and the unhealthiness of the country. Joseph himself, exhausted and chagrined by the misfortune of his army, returned sick to Vienna, in December. In the following year fortune favored the Austrian arms: Belgrade was surrendered to Loudon, and the Russians made great progress. The principal cause of the difficulties which Joseph next had to encounter was the tax law. The nobility and peasantry showed themselves equally dissatisfied, and the signal was given for general disorder and open rebellion. The Netherlands declared themselves independent, and expelled the imperial forces from all the provinces, and Luxemburg only remained in possession of the imperial troops. Joseph showed himself ready to make concessions; but all his proposals were scornfully rejected. The Hungarians also, whose general dissatisfaction had been only slumbering, rebelled, and demanded the restoration of their ancient rights and constitution. To the astonishment of all Europe, Joseph, in 1790, declared all the acts of his government in that country revoked, even to the edict of toleration which he had proclaimed in 1781. Tyrol next showed signs of dissatisfaction, and Joseph hastened to put everything on its former footing. His health sank under these accumulated mortifications, and the consequences soon became apparent. In February, 1790, he was sensible that death was rapidly approaching, and on the twentieth of the same month he died of pulmonary consumption.

Joseph was of the middle size, of a lively disposition, fickle, and fond of action, of ruling, of destroying, and building up. Courage in danger was a striking trait in his character. He had a strong and lively sense of the dignity of man, and respected it in all. He caused the Augarten, hitherto closed, to be made public, and placed over the entrance the inscription, "Dedicated to all men, by one who values them." When requested to permit only certain classes to walk in the Prater, in order that they might enjoy themselves there with their equals only, he refused, and added, "If I would live only with my equals I must go to the tomb of the Emperors, at the Capuchin Chapel, and there spend my days." To Schmidt, the historian of Germany, he said, "Spare no one, and not even myself, if you come down so far with your history. Posterity must judge my faults, and those of my predecessors." Frederic the Great wrote to Voltaire concerning

him, "Joseph is an Emperor such as Germany has not had for a long time. Educated in splendor, his habits are simple; grown up amidst flattery, he is still modest; inflamed with a love of glory, he yet sacrifices his ambition to his duty." Joseph's favorite object was to be sovereign in a peculiar sense, and to manage the great machine of the state entirely himself. Whatever his own reflections or his knowledge of other countries showed to be useful, he wished to introduce. But he did not sufficiently consider that he had to do with other men, with other relations, and that long habit made it difficult to change at once usages sanctified by time, and that other men did not possess his knowledge and experience. He was buried in the Capuchin Church, in Vienna.

His first wife, Elizabeth (Isabella) of Parma, left one child, Maria Theresa, who died when she was seven years old; his second was Josepha of Bavaria, who died in the prime of life, leaving no children.

LEOPOLD II., LEOPOLD DER ZWEITE. A.D. 1790-1792.

"Opes regum cordia subditorum." (The hearts of their subjects are the treasures of kings.)

LEOPOLD II. was born in 1747. On the death of his father, the Emperor Francis I., in 1765, he became Grand Duke of Tuscany, and, during a reign of twenty-five years, almost regenerated that country. He encouraged commerce, agriculture, and manufactures, improved the roads, established penitentiaries, abolished the Inquisition, and proclaimed a new criminal code. His financial administration was admirable, and he was personally simple in his manner of living. He preceded his brother Joseph in measures of ecclesiastical reform, but conducted them with more prudence and caution, yet to the great displeasure of the Roman court. When the death of his brother Joseph called him to the imperial throne, he found the hereditary states of Austria in a critical situation. In pursuance of the terms of the convention of Reichenbach with Prussia, he concluded an armistice with Turkey, which was followed by the Peace of Sistova, in 1791, surrendering all the Austrian conquests to the Porte. After reducing the revolted Netherlands by force of arms, he allowed them the enjoyment of their former privileges, and restored many of the ecclesiastical establishments which had been abolished by Joseph. Quiet was restored in Hungary, the police and the administration of justice were reformed, and public education was encouraged. In 1791 he had the celebrated

interview with the King of Prussia at Pillnitz, on which occasion the two monarchs declared the situation of the King of France to be a subject of general interest to all the sovereigns of Europe.

After having restored many institutions and usages which Joseph's ardent spirit had led him to abolish, he concerted measures with Frederic William II. of Prussia, Frederic Augustus of Saxony, and others to check the revolution in France and to provide for the personal safety of his sister, Marie Antoinette.

It has been said that Leopold was one of the best-disposed monarchs who ever sat on a throne, and it is not to be denied that he effected much good; but it was his lot to reign at the time of a great struggle between old and new principles, which is always a difficult and generally a deplorable situation

for a prince, who is plunged into a whirlpool in which all power of self-direction is lost. In the midst of his plans to aid his sister and her husband, Louis XVI. of France, he was seized with a malignant dysentery, aggravated by his immorality, and he died in March, 1792, after a reign of only two years. He was buried in the Capuchin Church, in Vienna. His wife was Maria Louisa, daughter of Charles III. of Spain. They had sixteen children. His sons were Francis, who succeeded him on the throne; Ferdinand, Grand Duke of Tuscany; the Archduke Charles, who distinguished himself in the wars against Napoleon; Maximilian, and John.

CONTEMPORARIES OF JOSEPH II. AND LEOPOLD II.

George III. was obliged to acknowledge the independence of the United States after the defeat of Lord Cornwallis, at Yorktown, in



LEOPOLD II.

1781. The intellect of George was not of the strongest, but, like his two predecessors, he had firmness of purpose, and, in addition, a conscientiousness and sense of decorum unknown to them, while both friends and enemies could rely upon him,—the one for favors, and the other for the reverse. His mind gave way in 1764 and in 1788, and finally in 1810, when the Prince of Wales was declared regent.

Louis XVI., as soon as he succeeded to the throne of France, tried to devise some remedies for the evils which, with his kingdom, he had inherited from his ancestors. The most embarrassing of these were connected with the finances. He saw clearly the existing evils and the proper remedy for them. But as the disease was great, so must the remedy be violent. Unfortunately, he was weak and timid; and to add to his disquietude, a treaty was made with the United States of North America, in which their independence was recognized by France. This was considered by England as a declaration of war against her. Peace, however, was made at Versailles, in 1783; after which the internal difficulties of France rapidly increased. In 1789 the French Revolution commenced; the nobles left the country; the king and his family attempted flight, but were seized at Varennes, and brought back to Paris; and in 1792 the king was deposed, and himself and family imprisoned.

Catherine II. of Russia and her minister Potemkin made their famous journey into Tauris in 1787. Potemkin turned it into a triumphal march. Throughout a journey of nearly one thousand leagues nothing but feasts and spectacles of various kinds were to be seen. Palaces were raised on barren heaths to be inhabited for a day. Villages and towns were built in the wildernesses, where, a short time before, the Tartars had fed their herds. An immense population appeared at every step,—the picture of affluence and prosperity. A hundred different nations paid homage to their sovereign. Catherine saw at a distance towns and villages, of which only the outward walls existed. She was surrounded by a multitude of people, who were conveyed on during the night, to afford her the same spectacle the following day. Two sovereigns visited her on this journey,—Stanislaus Augustus Poniatowski, the last King of Poland, and the Emperor Joseph II., who renewed his promise, given at St. Petersburg, to assist her in her projects against the Turks. About this time Prussia and England combined to instigate the Porte and Sweden to take up arms against Russia. The Turks were no more fortunate this time than before,—indeed, all the wars undertaken against Russia only tended to augment her political preponderance. Catherine's influence on Poland was

equal to absolute dominion. When the republic, in 1791, wished to change its constitution, she took part with the opponents of the plan, gained the concurrence of Prussia, garrisoned Poland with her troops, and concluded a new treaty of partition with the cabinet of Berlin, in 1792; and the following year, Poniatowski and Kosciusko being unable to contend against the combined forces of the Prussians and Russians, a *second partition* took place, as follows:

	English square miles.	Population.
Russia	96,000	3,000,000
Prussia	22,000	1,100,000

which the diet were forced to sanction at the point of the bayonet. The Poles now became desperate, and a general rising took place in 1794. The Prussians were compelled to retreat to their own country, and the Russians were several times routed; but a new enemy appeared on the scene. Austria was chagrined at having taken no part in the second partition, and was determined not to be behindhand on this occasion. Her army accordingly advanced, compelling the Poles to retreat; and fresh hordes of Russians arriving, Kosciusko, at the head of the last patriot army, was defeated; and the sack of Praga, followed by the capture of Warsaw, finally annihilated the Polish monarchy. The *third and last partition* distributed the remainder as follows :

	English square miles.	Population.
Russia	43,000	1,200,000
Prussia	21,000	1,000,000
Austria	18,000	1,000,000

King Stanislaus Poniatowski resigned his crown, and died broken-hearted at St. Petersburg in 1798. Catherine died of apoplexy in 1796.

UNITED STATES.

The first National Congress met at New York, March 4, 1789. George Washington, having been elected under the forms prescribed by the Constitution, was inaugurated first President of the United States. John Adams was Vice-President. In 1792, the first presidential term of four years being about to expire, Washington and Adams were re-elected as President and Vice-President.

DISTINGUISHED PERSONS.

Thaddeus Kosciusko, the last generalissimo of the republic of Poland, was one of the noblest characters of his age. He was born in

1756, of an ancient and noble, though not rich, family in Lithuania, and educated in the military school at Warsaw. Prince Czartoriski, perceiving his talents and industry, made him his second lieutenant in the corps of cadets, and sent him at his own expense to France, where he studied drawing and the military art. After his return he was made captain. But the consequences of an unhappy passion for the daughter of Sosnowski, Marshal of Lithuania, obliged him to leave Poland. Solitary studies, particularly in history and mathematics, prepared him for the struggle for freedom, in which he engaged under Washington, who made him his aid. Kosciusko distinguished himself particularly at the siege of Ninety-six, and was very highly esteemed by the army and the commander-in-chief. He and Lafayette were the only foreigners admitted into the order or society of the Cincinnati. Kosciusko received the rank of general, and in 1786 returned to Poland. When the Polish army was formed in 1789, the diet appointed him a major-general. He declared himself for the constitution of May 3, 1791, and served under Prince Joseph Poniatowski, distinguishing himself in the battles fought against the Prussian and Russian armies. Kosciusko's great power consisted in the confidence which his fellow-citizens reposed in him. The nephew of the king, once his general, served under him. He had unlimited power in the republic, but he displayed the integrity of Washington and the activity of Caesar. He attended to procuring supplies, superintended the raising and payment of money, and was equally active in the council and in the field. His days and nights and all his powers were devoted to his country. At length the contest was decided by an overwhelming superiority of numbers. At the siege of Warsaw he fell from his horse, covered with wounds, exclaiming, "*Finis Poloniae!*" He was taken prisoner with his colleagues, carried to St. Petersburg, and thrown into the state prison. After Catherine's death, Paul I. gave them their liberty, and distinguished Kosciusko by marks of his esteem. Paul presented his own sword to the general, who declined it with these words, "I no longer need a sword, since I have not a country." To the day of his death he never again wore a sword. His fortune was very small; but on his return to his native country, after the war of the Revolution, he received a pension from America. In 1797 he visited the United States, and found there such a reception as he deserved. In 1798 he went to France. His countrymen in the Italian army presented to him the sabre of John Sobieski, which had been found at Loretto. He at length settled at Soleure, in Switzerland, where he lived in retirement, enjoying the society of a few friends, and where he pur-

sued his favorite occupation, agriculture. He was never married. A fall with his horse from a precipice, not far from Vevay, occasioned his death in 1817, at Soleure.

Peter Alexis Wasiliowitsch, Count of Suwaroff-Rimnitskoy, field-marshall, and generalissimo of the Russian armies, one of the most distinguished generals of the eighteenth century, was born at Suskoy, a village of the Ukraine, in 1730. His father, an officer, placed him in the military academy at St. Petersburg, and in his seventeenth year Suwaroff entered the service as a common soldier, and gave proofs of his courage in the war against Sweden. In 1754 he became lieutenant, and, after distinguishing himself in the Seven Years' War, received the command of a regiment. In 1768 he was made brigadier-general, and served several campaigns in Poland, receiving, in reward for his courage and conduct, the crosses of three Russian orders of knighthood. He was also successful against the Turks. In 1789 the Austrian troops, under the Prince of Saxe-Coburg, being surrounded, on the banks of the Rimnik, by one hundred thousand Turks, owed their preservation to his timely arrival with ten thousand Russians, who not only rescued them from a destruction that appeared inevitable, but occasioned the utter overthrow of the enemy. To this victory he was indebted for the first of his above-named titles, and the dignity of a count of both empires. The next, and perhaps the most sanguinary of his actions, was the storming of Ismail, in 1790. This strongly-fortified town had resisted all attempts to reduce it for a period of seven months, when Suwaroff received peremptory orders from Prince Potemkin to take it without delay, and pledged himself to execute the task assigned him in three days. Of the sacking of the place on the third day, and the indiscriminate massacre of forty thousand of its inhabitants of every age and sex, the accounts of the period give the most revolting reports. The announcement of his bloody triumph was made by the general, who affected a Spartan brevity in his dispatches, in the words, "Glory to God! Ismail is ours!" Peace being proclaimed with Turkey, the Empress Catherine II. had leisure to mature her designs against the kingdom of Poland, and Suwaroff was selected as a fit instrument to carry them into execution. He marched, accordingly, at the head of his troops to Warsaw, destroying about twenty thousand Poles in his way. Suwaroff stormed the last bulwark of Poland, Praga, a fortified town on the Vistula, connected with Warsaw by a bridge of boats, and took it after a bloody fight. Thirteen thousand Poles fell on the field of battle, more than two thousand perished in the Vistula, and fourteen thousand

six hundred and eighty were made prisoners. The Russian loss was trifling. Suwaroff wrote to the Empress from the field of battle, "Hurrah! Praga! Suwaroff!" and received his promotion in the following answer, "Bravo! Field-Marshal! Catherine!" He entered Warsaw immediately after the fall of Praga, when the last partition of Poland took place. He received, besides his field-marshal's bâton, an estate in the dominions which he had contributed to annex to the Russian crown. The last and most celebrated of his actions was his campaign in Italy, in 1799, when his courage and genius for awhile repaired the disasters of the allied forces. Paul gave him the command of the Russian forces destined to act with the Austrians, and the Emperor Francis II. created him field-marshal, and commander-in-chief of the Austrian troops in Italy. He gained several brilliant victories at Piacenza, Novi, etc., and drove the French from all the towns and fortresses of Upper Italy, and was rewarded for his services with the title of *Prince Italinski*. But, in consequence of a change in the plan of operations, he passed the Alps; and the defeat of Korsakoff at Zurich by the French general Massena, together with the failure of the expected assistance from the Austrians, obliged Suwaroff to retreat from Switzerland. Paul, offended with the Austrian court, now recalled the prince, in spite of his remonstrances, and preparations were made for his triumphal entry into St. Petersburg. Meanwhile, Suwaroff, having evaded an imperial order directing the generalissimo to name each general in turn general of the day, by appointing Prince Bagration standing general of the day, was declared by the Emperor to have deserved censure, and the preparations for his triumph were suspended. Chagrin at this disgrace hastened his death, which took place May 18, 1800, sixteen days after his arrival at St. Petersburg. Suwaroff was a remarkable man. Though feeble and sickly in his youth, he had acquired a sound constitution by his simple and abstemious mode of life: he slept upon straw, and his whole wardrobe consisted of his regimental uniform and a sheepskin. He observed punctilioiusly all the ceremonies of his religion, and never gave the signal for battle without crossing himself and kissing the image of St. Nicholas. He was inflexible in his purposes, faithful to his promises, and incorruptible; in courage, promptness of decision, and action he has had few equals. His contempt of money, his coarse manners, and his intrepidity rendered him the favorite of his soldiers; but the superior officers were often offended by the severity of his discipline. Although acquainted with several modern languages, he never entered into any political or diplomatic correspondence, and he

was accustomed to say that a pen was unbecoming the hand of a soldier. His orders and reports were often written in doggerel verse. *Wenceslaus Anthony, Prince of Kaunitz*, knight of the Golden Fleece, fifth son of Count Kaunitz, and one of nineteen children, was born in Vienna in 1711, and was at first destined for the Church; but after the death of all his brothers he engaged in political life. His talents, aided by a favorable exterior, opened a brilliant career to him. After having studied at Vienna, Leipsic, and Leyden, he entered upon his travels in 1732. In 1741 he was sent to Pope Benedict XIV., and to Florence, on a secret mission, by Maria Theresa. In 1742 he went as Austrian ambassador to Turin, where he accomplished his mission, to unite Sardinia more closely with Austria against the Bourbon courts, so successfully that in 1744 he was appointed minister at the court of Charles, Duke of Lorraine, then governor-general of the Austrian Netherlands. He conducted the most difficult affairs, in a highly critical state of the Netherlands, to the greatest satisfaction of the Empress; but his feeble health obliged him to ask his dismission, and he returned to Vienna. Soon afterwards, however, he appeared as minister plenipotentiary at the Congress of Aix-la-Chapelle, where he laid the foundation of his fame as a diplomatist. From 1750 to 1752 he was minister at Paris, and prepared the union of Austria and France, which took place in 1756. In 1753 he had been made court and state chancellor, and in 1756 was created chancellor of Italy and the Netherlands. Thus he not only managed the foreign affairs of Austria under Maria Theresa, but had also the greatest influence upon the domestic affairs of the country. In 1764 the Emperor, Francis I., raised him to the dignity of prince. As long as Maria Theresa lived, her confidence in Kaunitz was unbounded; but the Emperor, Joseph II., did not implicitly follow his advice; of which the unsuccessful attempt to open the Scheldt and to exchange the Austrian Netherlands for Bavaria, as well as the unfortunate war with Turkey, were consequences. Under the reign of Leopold II., the influence of Kaunitz was still less. When Francis II. ascended the throne, his advanced age induced him to resign the office of court and state chancellor. He made up his opinions slowly, and after mature consideration. Voltaire was his favorite author, and he had much esteem for Rousseau, who had been for a few weeks his private secretary at Paris. In Lombardy and the Netherlands he instituted academies. Learned men had free access to him, and he cultivated the arts. The school of art at Vienna is almost entirely his work. Several painters and engravers were indebted to him for patronage. His love of dress was considered

extravagant. He was strictly honest and faithful. He rarely laughed, yet he was affable to all below him in rank. Under Joseph's government, Kaunitz ceased to appear at court, but the Emperor often went to visit him, and received much assistance from him in his ecclesiastical reforms; hence he was called by the court of Rome *il ministro eretico*, —the heretical minister; yet when Pope Pius VI. was at Vienna, he gave him, as a matter of policy, not the back, but the palm of his hand to kiss, which was formerly considered as the highest favor; but Kaunitz, pretending not to understand this etiquette, took the hand of the Pope in his, and gave it a hearty shake. Kaunitz died in 1794, with the reputation of one of the ablest ministers Austria had ever produced, and the still greater fame of a man of noble character. No minister was ever treated with a longer and more intimate confidence, which was founded equally on his talents and his strict integrity. It was a saying of his, "Many things are not ventured because they are difficult, but far more are only difficult because they are not ventured."

Pope Pius VI. succeeded Clement XIV. in 1775. The conflict with the civil power in the various states of Europe, in which, from the days of Innocent XI., the Roman see had been almost unceasingly involved to a greater or less degree, assumed under Pius what may be called its complete and scientific development. His relations to the Emperor Joseph, whom he visited in Vienna, and the Grand Duke Leopold of Tuscany, who persisted in the reformation of the religious orders and in giving greater freedom to the press, were far from amicable. The internal administration of Pius, however, was enlightened and judicious. To him Rome owes the drainage of the Pontine Marsh, the improvement of the port of Ancona, the completion of the church of St. Peter, the foundation of the new museum of the Vatican, and the general improvement and embellishment of the city. These and other similar projects were interrupted by the outbreak of the French Revolution.

Charles Theodore, Elector of Bavaria. In 1784, the possession of Bavaria again became an object of desire at Vienna, and an exchange was proposed, which had been already a subject of negotiation in the beginning of the century. The Emperor Joseph II. proposed to the Elector to exchange Bavaria for the Austrian Netherlands (excluding Luxemburg and Namur), and the sum of three million florins for himself and the Duke of Deux-Ponts, who, encouraged by the protection of Prussia, declared "that he would never consent to barter away the inheritance of his ancestors." The zeal with which Frederic the Great adopted the cause of Bavaria induced the cabinet of Vienna to relinquish the plan, and to declare, at the same time, "that there never

had been and never would be any intention of a forced exchange." The reign of Charles Theodore was remarkable for the rise of the *Illuminati* in Bavaria, for the processes against them, and for the revival of Jesuitism. The *Illuminati* (*enlightened ones*) was a secret society, founded in 1776, by Adam Weishaupt, professor of law at Ingolstadt, for mutual assistance in obtaining a higher degree of morality and virtue. It contained, in its most flourishing condition, two thousand members, among whom were individuals of distinguished talents and high rank. The constitution and organization were taken partly from the Jesuits and partly from the Free-masons. By order of the Bavarian government this society was dissolved in 1784. During these troubles, the liberty of the press was continually more and more restrained, and a period of intellectual darkness appeared to be setting in.

Frederic William II., son of Prince Augustus William, and nephew of Frederic the Great, succeeded to the throne of Prussia, in 1786. After a prolonged estrangement between his uncle and himself, he regained the good will of the king by his valor in the war of the Bavarian Succession, in 1778; but, although he succeeded to a well-consolidated power and an overflowing treasury, he had not the capacity to maintain his favorable position. The first important act of his policy abroad, which was but slightly influenced by the energetic minister Herzberg, was to reinstate in power his brother-in-law, the Stadtholder of the Netherlands, who had been deposed by the anti-Orange party. A Prussian army under the Duke of Brunswick entered Holland, occupied Amsterdam, and restored the ancient order of things, which was confirmed by a treaty concluded in 1788, at the Hague, by Prussia, England, and Holland. Futile or hastily undertaken wars wasted his resources; so that at his death, in 1797, instead of the overplus of seventy million thalers that had been bequeathed to him, the state was hampered with a debt of twenty-two millions. His predilection for unworthy favorites, the establishment of a strict censorship of the press, and the introduction of stringent ecclesiastic enactments alienated the affections of the people, although his natural mildness of disposition had excited the sanguine hopes of the nation on his accession. Frederic William shared in the partition of Poland in 1793, and thus gained a considerable addition to his kingdom, which by purchase, inheritance, and other means was augmented during his reign by the acquisition of more than forty-six thousand square miles of territory and two and a half millions of inhabitants. The chief internal improvements in his reign were the introduction of a new code of laws and a less onerous mode of raising the taxes.

John Chrysostom Wolfgang Amadeus Mozart, the great German composer, was born at Salzburg in 1756. At the age of four years his father began to teach him some minuets and other small pieces on the harpsichord. In his fifth year he composed little pieces, which he played to his father, who wrote them down. In his sixth year Mozart had made such progress that his father was induced to take him and his sister Maria Anna, who was also a musical genius, to Munich and Vienna, where the little artists were introduced at the court. Mozart no sooner saw the Empress Maria Theresa than he went up to her and said, "You are the handsomest woman in the world." The unequaled execution of young Mozart excited universal surprise, and the interest was heightened by the fact that he was anxious only to please real connoisseurs, and appeared little affected by the opinion of the multitude. Thus, he requested the Emperor Francis to send for Wagenseil: this was done, and the child then performed one of his concertos with surprising execution. He was not at all pleased with the Archduchess Caroline, afterwards Queen of Naples; but the amiability of Marie Antoinette so won his heart that he told her he would make her his wife. In 1763, when young Mozart was seven years old, the family made a journey beyond the borders of Germany, which spread his fame throughout Europe. When he visited Paris, he published his first sonatas for the harpsichord. In 1764 the family visited England and performed at court, the son playing on the king's organ with great success. During his stay in England he composed six sonatas, which were published in London, and which he dedicated to Queen Charlotte. In 1765 the family went by way of the Netherlands to Holland, where Mozart published six sonatas, and dedicated them to the Princess of Nassau.

At the beginning of the year 1766 he was again four weeks in Amsterdam, and proceeded thence to the Hague, to assist at the installation of the Stadtholder. They next visited Paris, and proceeded by way of Lyons, through Switzerland, to Munich, where the Elector gave young Mozart a theme, which he composed in his presence, without piano or violin, wrote down the music, and, to the astonishment of all present, performed it perfectly immediately after. They returned to Salzburg, where they remained two years, and then made a second journey to Vienna. The brother and sister performed in presence of the Emperor Joseph, who commissioned young Mozart to write the music for a comic opera,—"*La Finta Semplice*." It was applauded by Hasse, the master of the chapel, and Metastasio, but was not performed. At the consecration of the Orphans' Church, being then but

twelve years of age, he composed the mass, the *offertorium*, and a concert for trumpets, and led the solemn performance in presence of the imperial court. In 1769, Mozart went to Rome, where he undertook to write down, on hearing it, the famous "Miserere" annually sung in the Sistine Chapel during the holy week, and at that time kept very secret. He succeeded so well that when he sang it, accompanied by the harpsichord, Christofori, who had sung it in the chapel, expressed his wonder. The Pope made him a knight of the Golden Spur. In Naples, Bologna, and Verona he was highly honored. At Milan he was engaged to compose the first opera for the Carnival. He arrived at Milan at the end of October, 1770, and there composed his first opera, "Mithridates," which was performed on the day after Christmas, and repeated more than twenty times in succession. On his return to Salzburg he found a letter, in which he was commissioned, in the name of the Empress Maria Theresa, to compose the grand theatrical serenata "Ascanio in Alba," for the celebration of the nuptials of the Archduke Ferdinand. In August he returned to Milan for some months, where, during the festivities of the marriage, Mozart's serenata and an opera composed by Hasse were performed alternately. In 1772 he composed, in celebration of the election of the Archbishop of Salzburg, the serenata "Il Sogno di Scipione." In the winter of 1773 he composed his opera "Lucio Silla," which was repeated twenty-six times in succession in Salzburg. In his twenty-fourth year he went to Vienna, where he entered the service of the Emperor. He satisfied the great expectations which were raised by his early genius, and was the Raphael of musicians. Among the works of his which have remained on the German stage, and which will always be the delight of the German nation, is his "Idomeneo, Re di Creta," composed in 1780, at Munich. Of his "Entführung aus dem Serail," his fourteenth opera in the order of time, which was performed at Vienna in 1782, Joseph II. said to the composer, "This music is too fine for our ears; there are a prodigious number of notes in it." "There are as many as are proper," replied Mozart. "The Marriage of Figaro" met with the highest applause. It was performed during the winter of 1787, at Prague. At the same place Mozart composed, in the same winter, his "Don Juan," which pleased in Prague even more than the "Marriage of Figaro." Nevertheless, this opera, on its first representation, was not favorably received at Vienna, although Haydn on this occasion pronounced Mozart the greatest of all living composers. During the illness which caused his death he wrote the "Magic Flute," "La Clemenza di Tito," and his famous requiem. He died in December, 1791, in the thirty-sixth year

of his age. His requiem is said to have had the following origin. A count of Walsegg, who was a stranger to him, came one day and requested him to compose a mass for the death of his wife, for which Mozart was to fix his own price. Mozart required two hundred ducats, but would not bind himself as to time, wishing to give the work perfection. The visitor paid the price demanded in advance, and promised when the work was finished to give an additional sum, and to call again in the course of some months. During this time Mozart had received the commission to compose "La Clemenza di Tito," for the coronation of the Emperor Leopold II., at Prague, and he was engaged upon this work when the visitor reappeared and reminded him of his promise. On his return from Prague he commenced the mass with an energy and interest which he had never yet evinced while composing any of his other pieces, so that his wife felt great anxiety lest the unusual exertion should affect his already declining health; indeed, Mozart himself, with tears in his eyes, acknowledged that he was writing his own requiem. When he had nearly completed the work he was again oppressed with melancholy, and his death followed soon after. The visitor again appeared, demanded the piece, and received it unfinished as it was left. This composition fell into the hands of his scholar, Süssmayr, who made some additions, and arranged the whole as it is now printed.

The eminent historian, *Edward Gibbon*, was born at Putney, England, in 1737. In 1776 he began the publication of his great work, "The Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire." Niebuhr says that "The Decline and Fall" is probably the greatest achievement of human thought and erudition in the department of history. It is virtually a history of the civilized world for thirteen centuries, during which paganism was breaking down and Christianity was superseding it. Its style is marked by the highest power of condensation, and is full of smiting phrases and ponderous antitheses.

FRANCIS II., FRANZ DER ZWEITE. A.D. 1792-1806.

"Lege et fide." (Law and faith.)

FRANCIS II., the eldest son of Leopold II., Grand Duke of Tuscany, and of Maria Louisa, daughter of Charles III., King of Spain, was born at Florence in 1768. In 1790 his father became Emperor by the death of his brother Joseph, but died two years after, when the crown devolved upon Francis, who was also elected Emperor of Ger-

many, and was crowned successively at Frankfort, in Hungary, and in Bohemia, shortly after the outbreak of the French Revolution. He was

soon surrounded with difficulties and dangers. Hungary, stripped of its constitutional privileges by the centralizing and Germanizing efforts of Joseph, and not fully appeased by the concessions of Leopold, was in a state of national excitement, and the Belgian provinces were ripe for revolt. The legislative assembly of France obliged Louis XVI. to declare war against the young King of Hungary and Bohemia in April, 1792. The victories of Dumouriez, the revolt of Belgium, the victories of Custine on the Rhine, and the execution of Louis XVI. and of the queen, Marie Antoinette, the aunt of Francis, followed in rapid train. It was in vain that Clairfait obtained some advantages over the French; that Francis took



FRANÇOIS II.

the command in person, and was for a time successful; that a new and mightier coalition was formed: the armies of the republic soon drove back the allies; Francis's confederates deserted him, and, in 1795, Tuscany, Sweden, Spain, and even Prussia, concluded at Basel a treaty of peace with the republic, whose Italian army, now commanded by General Bonaparte, conquered in the two next years the whole north of Italy. Francis himself, notwithstanding some slight advantages gained by his brother, the Archduke Charles, over Moreau, in Southern Germany, was finally forced to conclude the treaty of Campo Formio, in October, 1797, in which he sacrificed the Netherlands, Milan, and a Rhenish province of the empire, in exchange for Venice. Changes in France, and new French aggressions, tempted Austria, Russia, and

England to another war. The allied armies were successful for awhile under the Emperor's brother, the Archduke Charles, in Germany, under Hotze in Switzerland, and under Kray and Suwaroff in Italy. But reverses came; Suwaroff was recalled by his Emperor, Paul; and Bonaparte, returning from Egypt, became master of France by a *coup d'état*, and of Italy by the passage of the Alps and the battle of Marengo, in 1800, while Moreau fought his way through Southern Germany towards Vienna. These disasters compelled Francis to the Peace of Luneville, by which he lost a portion of Germany and acquired a portion of Italy.

England made peace with France at Amiens, but broke it again, and formed a new coalition, in which the Emperors Francis and Alexander and the King of Sweden took part, while Prussia remained neutral, and Bavaria, Würtemberg, and Baden were ready to side with the French. Francis expected the first attack from Italy, and sent thither his brother, the Archduke Charles, who gained a battle over Massena; but Napoleon broke through Germany, and his sudden marches, the surrender of Ulm, with its twenty-four thousand men under Mack, the retreat of the Archduke Ferdinand, and the great battle of Austerlitz, in 1805, in which the two allied Emperors were present, made him the dictator of the treaty concluded at Presburg, in which Francis lost the Tyrol, Venice, and three millions of subjects, and received in exchange only Salzburg. The Electors of Bavaria and Würtemberg now received the title of kings, as a reward for their support of the victor. In 1804, when Napoleon had been proclaimed Emperor of France, Francis declared himself hereditary Emperor of Austria, uniting all his dominions in one empire. On the establishment of the Confederation of the Rhine, in 1806, he laid down the dignity of German Emperor, which his family had held for nearly five hundred years, and took the title of Francis I., Emperor of Austria.

Napoleon, having crushed Prussia, Portugal, and Italy, threatened Austria again. Francis armed the ancient German militia, and called to his aid the Hungarian nobles. The Archdukes Charles, Ferdinand, and Maximilian, brothers of the Emperor, were sent with armies across the German, Italian, and Polish frontiers; but Austria stood this time alone, while Napoleon was assisted by Poles, Russians, and Germans. With the exception of the battles of Aspern and Essling, in 1809, in which Napoleon suffered his first defeat, the whole campaign in Germany was a series of French victories. The Austrians were forced to evacuate Vienna, were driven from Poland, and were signally defeated at Wagram; the Hungarian nobles were dispersed, and a rising

of the Tyrolese in favor of Austria proved abortive. The Peace of Schönbrunn cost Francis some rich provinces, and more than three million five hundred thousand subjects. The resources of his empire were exhausted, and his treasury had long been bankrupt. In this situation he consented to give his daughter Maria Louisa in marriage to Napoleon, and soon saw the title, King of Rome, which once had been his own, bestowed upon her child.

But the power as well as the presumption of Napoleon had now attained its highest pitch. In the disastrous Russian campaign of 1812, an auxiliary Austrian force occupied Poland in the French interest, but effected little. In 1813 Francis declared his neutrality, and on Napoleon's refusal to accept his mediation with Russia he joined the allies, contributing largely to their victory at Leipsic. In the following year he entered France with his army, and remained two months in Paris after its occupation by the allies. In June, the European congress assembled at Vienna, but the brilliant festivals with which Francis entertained his guests were interrupted in March, 1815, by the news of Napoleon's return from Elba. An Austrian army now crossed the Simplon and occupied Lyons, while another marched into Italy, overthrew Murat, and restored to the old King Ferdinand the crown of Naples. On the return of peace after the battle of Waterloo, Francis, having ceded Belgium to the Netherlands, and acquired Lombardy and Venice, saw his empire greater than it had ever been before. His policy, developed by Metternich, became the policy of Europe. Based on a horror of revolution and a reverence for hereditary right, it took the form of a thorough conservatism and centralization, supported by a large standing army, a secret police, strict subordination, a literary censorship, and all the measures of repression familiar to an arbitrary government. Austria was the centre of all the reactionary movements of the period following the French Revolution. Monarchical congresses for the suppression of the revolutionary spirit of Germany, Spain, and Italy were held on its territory, at Carlsbad in 1819, at Troppau in 1820, at Laybach in 1821, and at Verona in 1822. "Be careful," said Francis to the professors in the university at Laybach, "not to teach too much. I do not want learned men in my kingdom; I want good subjects, who will do as I bid them." His armies restored order in Piedmont and Naples, and Austrian influence prevailed in Portugal, Spain, and the German confederacy at Frankfurt. Francis sanctioned even the despotic rule of Turkey over Greece, and imprisoned the Greek refugee Ypsilanti. He was the first to counteract in Italy the influence of the French revolution of July,

1830, and aided the Czar Nicholas in the Polish war of independence, in 1831. It was, nevertheless, a constant though secret part of his policy to check the growing and threatening power of Russia.

At home, his chief embarrassments sprang from an exhausted treasury, enormous debts, and the uneasiness of the Italians, Hungarians, and Slavs. New loans and taxes relieved his finances; state prisons and rigorous punishments were used to crush the spirit of independence in Italy; while the diet of Presburg was appeased by reluctant concessions, and German officials kept order in Poland and Bohemia. In the promotion of industry, commerce, and the arts in his dominions, and the advancement of German influence, he showed a wiser policy. The courts of law were reorganized, and the ancient codes were revised and modified. Francis was economical, industrious, and regular in his personal habits, popular with the Germans, but little known and less liked by his other subjects. The antipathy inspired by the reactionary measures of his government, and the attacks of the liberal press in foreign countries, and of the Hungarian patriots in their diets and county assemblies, were directed less against the Emperor than against his minister, Metternich. His private treasury was in an incomparably better condition than that of the state, and his family was large and prosperous. The latter part of his reign was undisturbed. He died at Vienna, March 2, 1835.

His first wife was Elizabeth of Würtemberg; his second, Maria Theresa of Sicily, was the mother of thirteen children, among whom were Maria Louisa, wife of Napoleon I., Ferdinand, who succeeded him on the throne, and Francis Charles, the father of the present Emperor, Francis Joseph I. His third wife was Maria Louisa Beatrice of Austria, and his fourth, Charlotte of Bavaria.

CONTEMPORARIES OF FRANCIS II., EMPEROR OF GERMANY (I. OF AUSTRIA).

George III. fell ill in 1801, and again in 1804. In 1810 he became hopelessly insane. During his reign the British rule in India was consolidated; the Jacobite feeling had died out, and the union had become not a legislative one merely, but a union of society, literature, thought, and enterprise. The most original and vigorous thought of this period found its expression in poetry, and among its great poets the most noteworthy were Byron, Coleridge, Wordsworth, and Walter Scott, the last of whom is also at the head of writers of prose fiction; while among those distinguished for eloquence were Chatham, Fox, and Burke, three of the greatest orators of all time. Chemistry and the steam-engine were beginning to alter the face of society. Among

legislative reforms, the most conspicuous was the abolition of the punishment of death for minor crimes. George III. died in January, 1820.

Charlotte of Mecklenburg-Strelitz, wife of George III., was well educated, decidedly prepossessing in appearance, and engaging in manners. Neither party strife nor political animosity ever disturbed the tranquillity of her household. She was a faithful friend, a good wife, and very benevolent. The private life of George and Charlotte was remarkably simple, regular, and methodical, and they endeavored to bring up their children well, both morally and intellectually. Charlotte died in the seventy-fifth year of her age. Their children were George IV.; Frederic, Duke of York, who married Frederica, eldest daughter of Frederic William III., King of Prussia; William, Duke of Clarence, afterwards William IV., married Adelaide of Saxe-Meiningen; Charlotte married Frederic William, Prince of Würtemberg; Edward, Duke of Kent, married Victoria of Saxe-Coburg; Augusta married the Prince of Hesse-Homburg; Ernest, Duke of Cumberland, married the daughter of the Duke of Mecklenburg-Strelitz, and afterwards became King of Hanover; Augustus, Duke of Cambridge, married Lady Augusta Murray; Adolphus, Duke of Cambridge, married the Princess of Hesse-Cassel; Mary married the Duke of Gloucester. Besides these, there were Sophia, Octavius, Alfred, and Amelia. All their married daughters died childless; and only three of the sons left children. The Duke of Kent had one child, the present Queen Victoria; Ernest, King of Hanover, had a son, who succeeded him in 1851; Adolphus, Duke of Cambridge, left a son, who succeeded him, and two daughters, Augusta, the Grand Duchess of Mecklenburg-Strelitz, and Princess Mary of Cambridge.

George IV. had been virtual sovereign during the long period of his father's last insanity, as prince-regent. He was born in 1762, and died in 1830. That he should have lived so long as sixty-seven years is not the least notable circumstance connected with a life which has supplied as much material for scandal as any other in English history. George IV. had considerable intellectual ability and address, could tell stories well, and enjoyed every day without thinking of the next. His personal attractions, combined with his position, led many to style him in his lifetime, not without sincerity, "the first gentleman of Europe;" but the decay of king-worship, and the growth of morality, have not allowed that to continue as the opinion of his countrymen. His frailties, and those of his royal namesakes, have been mercilessly exposed by Thackeray in his "*Four Georges*." Unfortunately for their memory,

no man of Thackeray's abilities has set himself to look for their virtues and their good offices to England,—which were not few,—and for which they have earned the gratitude of patriots who are not mere blind worshipers of royalty. The marriage of George IV. was specially unfortunate. He married his cousin, Caroline Amelia Elizabeth, second daughter of the Duke of Brunswick, under the pressure of debt and of his father's desire, and their conjugal happiness, if it ever existed, did not last many weeks. Their daughter, the Princess Charlotte Augusta, was born in 1796, and shortly afterwards her parents separated, having ceased to speak to each other months before. Princess Charlotte Augusta married Leopold, King of Belgium, and died in 1817, greatly to the grief of the whole nation. Royal visits to Scotland and Ireland, the aid rendered to the Greeks by the British fleet in the battle of Navarino, 1827, which secured the independence of Greece, and the passing of the Roman Catholic Relief Bill (so odious to his father), are the most notable incidents of the reign of George IV.

Caroline of Brunswick, the wife of George IV., had but little attention paid to her education, and grew up a forward, sharp-witted, warm-hearted, hasty, self-willed, indiscreet maiden. She was refused admittance to her husband's coronation, and died soon after, in the fifty-fourth year of her age, a martyr to her own folly, and the harsh persecution of her unprincipled husband. She was buried in the cathedral of St. Blaize, in Brunswick, by the side of her heroic father and brother, the former of whom fell at Jena, and the latter at Quatre-Bras.

William IV. succeeded his brother George IV. in 1830. The great event which distinguished his reign was the passage of the act called *Parliamentary Reform*. William IV. was affable in his manners, and cordial in his deportment, with somewhat of the rude heartiness of the deck, on which he had passed some of his early years, having been for a time lord high admiral of England. After he came to the throne he became economical in his habits. During his reign the nation enjoyed tranquillity at home and abroad. The license of his early life has left a stain upon his character.

Adelaide of Saxe-Meiningen, wife of William IV., was one of the most virtuous and well-intentioned of the queens of England. After William's death she received a dower of one hundred thousand pounds. Her character was pre-eminently distinguished by piety, liberality, unbounded charity, and benevolent sympathy. She died in 1849, and was buried in St. George's Chapel, Windsor.

Louis XVI. of France was beheaded in January, 1793, and the Reign of Terror then commenced.

Marie Antoinette, wife of Louis XVI., was the daughter of Francis I., Emperor of Germany, and of Maria Theresa. In her youth, her teacher of Italian was Metastasio; of music, Gluck; and of French, the Abbé Vermond. Her grace and dignity of person were adorned by the variety of her attainments. In surrendering her daughter in marriage to Louis, Maria Theresa wrote that, as she had ever been the delight of her mother, so she would prove to be the happiness of her husband. The political agitations of France, which had been growing for centuries, broke forth into open revolution, and Marie Antoinette was held responsible in the minds of many for the vacillation of her husband, the incapacity of ministers, the degeneracy of society, and the absolute and inevitable course of events. When the report of her injuries resounded throughout Europe, the Queen of Naples, and her brother, the Emperor Joseph II., entreated her to escape from the dangers which they foresaw. In one of her letters to her brother, Joseph, she wrote that "a good and affectionate mother has no country but the one in which the fate of her children is necessarily fixed." Marie Antoinette had often been imprudent, often vain and frivolous, often, perhaps, too tenacious of the opinions incident to her birth and rank; but in the closing scenes of her life we can see her only as the noble, persecuted woman. She was beheaded in October, 1793. She had four children,—Maria Theresa Charlotte, who married the Duke d'Angoulême, eldest son of Charles X.; the Dauphin Louis, who died in 1789; Charles Louis, Duke of Normandy, who, after the death of his father, was known, during his short existence, as Louis XVII.; and a daughter, who died in her infancy.

The Republic of France followed. Austria and Prussia invaded France with their armies, and the Convention declared war against France, England, Spain, and Holland. A counter-revolution in La Vendée was suppressed with terrible massacres. The worship of Reason was proclaimed and the churches closed. Napoleon Bonaparte, a young captain of artillery, was appointed to the command of the army in Italy, and subdued that peninsula in one campaign. He then conducted an army into Egypt, capturing Malta by the way, and conquered the whole country, though his fleet was destroyed by Nelson in the battle of the Nile. Returning to France, he was created First Consul in 1799, and the war with England closed with the Peace of Amiens. In 1803, hostilities recommenced, and the French conquered Hanover and threatened the invasion of England. In 1804, Napoleon became Emperor.

The First Empire. Prussia and Austria combined with England

against Napoleon, and were defeated at Ulm and Austerlitz. Peace followed, and fourteen German princes put themselves under the protection of Napoleon, and thus ended the German Empire. Joseph Bonaparte was made King of the Two Sicilies, and afterwards of Spain. Louis Bonaparte was made King of Holland. In 1806, Prussia and Russia took up arms against Napoleon, and were defeated at Jena, Eylau, and Friedland. The Peace of Tilsit followed, in 1807. The Peninsular War, with English forces under the Duke of Wellington, ended in the submission of Spain to Napoleon. Austria broke the peace, and was defeated at Eckmühl, Essling, and Wagram. After the peace of Vienna, Napoleon married Maria Louisa, daughter of the Emperor Francis I. of Austria. In 1812 he began his Russian campaign, which resulted in the burning of Moscow and his disastrous retreat, with the loss of seven-eighths of his army. A powerful coalition, including England, Russia, Prussia, Austria, and even the Kings of Naples, Bavaria, and Sweden, who had received their crowns from Napoleon, carried the war into France, and in 1814 Napoleon was deposed and banished to Elba, and the Bourbons were recalled. Eight months afterwards the Emperor landed in France with a few attendants, was joined by the whole army, and placed upon the throne. But the allies refused to make peace with him, and at length defeated him at Waterloo. Failing to reach America, he surrendered himself to the English, who imprisoned him for life on the island of St. Helena, where he died, May 5, 1821.

His first wife was *Marie Josephine Tascher de la Pagerie*, daughter of a highly respectable family of Martinique. She was born at St. Pierre, in that island, in 1768. At an early age she was married to Viscount Alexander Beauharnais, and shortly after went to Paris, where the viscount obtained the rank of general and commander-in-chief from the Constituent Assembly. He fell a victim during the Reign of Terror. He left two children, Eugene and Hortense. Josephine herself was thrown into prison on account of the efforts which she made to save her husband. After the death of Robespierre she was liberated, and in 1796 she became the wife of Napoleon. While Napoleon was in Egypt, she retired to Malmaison, occupied herself in her favorite study of botany, and built a very extensive hot-house, which she filled with a rare and valuable collection of exotics. Her taste in this respect was so well known throughout Europe that, although England and France were constantly at war, the Prince-Regent of England gave orders that the envoys whom she employed to collect her horticultural treasures should be respected and allowed

to pass securely. Josephine profited by the elevation of her husband to the consulate to extend her benevolence, and became the depositary of the sorrows of all those who approached her, acting in such a maternal manner that Napoleon, in one of his letters, wrote her, "If I win battles, you win hearts." She was consecrated Empress of France by Pope Pius VII.; and Napoleon placed on her head the iron crown of Lombardy, at Milan. Her son, Prince Eugene Beauharnais, was married to a daughter of the King of Bavaria, and magnificent fêtes were given at Munich, at which the Emperor and Empress were present. Her daughter, Hortense, was united to Louis Bonaparte, King of Holland, by whom she had a son, who, unfortunately for Josephine, died in 1807; for Napoleon was exceedingly fond of his young nephew, whom it was said he intended to have named his successor; and after the death of this prince, the report of the Emperor's intention of divorcing the Empress began to be circulated at court. Napoleon ardently desired an heir, through whom he might insure repose to France and the throne to his dynasty. Josephine had never had any children by her second marriage, and therefore consented to the divorce, which took place in 1810. She also consoled and encouraged her children, who were deeply afflicted at this circumstance, and who, but for her remonstrances, would have quitted France forever. Josephine was allowed to retain the title of Empress, and retired first to her estate in Navarre; but her favorite residence was Malmaison, where she spent the greater part of the year, and where Napoleon frequently visited her, and consulted her on political affairs.

Josephine, in her honorable retirement, at the age of forty-six, was surrounded with the esteem of all Europe; and, possessing a fortune of two million francs a year, she had ample means of satisfying her benevolent intentions. Confiding in her sagacity, Napoleon communicated to her his intention of undertaking the fatal expedition to Russia, in 1812. Fearing the result of this gigantic enterprise, Josephine in vain entreated him to abandon the project. In 1814, when the allied armies entered Paris, she went to Navarre. On learning that Napoleon had retired to Fontainebleau, and that his fate had been decided, she became insensible, and was for some hours attacked with fainting-fits. At length, recovering her strength and energy, she exclaimed, "I ought not to remain here; my presence is necessary to the Emperor! I shall fulfill the duty of Maria Louisa! Since she has abandoned him, I will go to him. I only agreed to separate from him while he was happy; now I am sure he expects me!" On returning to Malmaison she found that a guard of honor had been placed there;

her property had been respected, and she felt herself in the midst of a new court, embellished by the first persons in Europe. The Duke of Berri, fearing that the recent events must have caused her great anxiety and alarm, sent the Count de Mesnard to assure her that he should be very happy to do anything that would be agreeable to her, for whom he entertained as much respect as admiration. The Emperor Alexander testified the greatest friendship for her and her children, and frequently dined with them at Malmaison; moreover, her son Eugene was most cordially received by the king, Louis XVIII., who embraced him, and declared that as soon as peace was announced he would make him a marshal of France, as he considered him a brilliant example to the army. and that he ought to be surnamed the *Bayard of the age*. He also received Queen Hortense with great distinction, and she was allowed to retain the honors of her rank. After Napoleon's exile to Elba, Josephine's health began to fail. The Emperor of Russia and the King of Prussia going to dine with her, she determined, in opposition to her physician's advice, to do the honors of her table; she was, however, so exceedingly unwell that, before the dinner was over, she was obliged to resign her place to Queen Hortense. Her complaint was a species of gangrenous quinsy. The Emperor Alexander went almost daily to visit her, and on the day of her death he arrived at the moment she had given her last blessing to her children. She expired on the 29th of May, 1814. Her funeral took place with great magnificence in the modest little church at Rueil, the parish in which Malmaison is situated. The corners of the pall were held by the Grand Duke of Baden, who was married to Josephine's niece, Stephanie de Beauharnais; the Marquis de Beauharnais, her brother-in-law; the Count Henry de Tascher, her nephew; and the Count de Beauharnais, chevalier d'honneur to Maria Louisa. General Sacken, aid-de-camp to the Emperor of Russia, and the King of Prussia's adjutant-general, headed the procession on foot, followed by a great number of foreign princes, ambassadors, and senators; different orders of fraternity carrying banners, and twenty young girls, dressed in white and singing psalms, composed a part of the cortége, the sides of which were formed by troops of Russian hussars and national guards; while two thousand poor of all ages closed the procession. Her children afterwards placed her remains in a magnificent tomb of pure white marble. The Empress is represented in a kneeling attitude, attired in the imperial costume, and apparently praying for France. The only words engraved on this beautiful monument are, *Eugène et Hortense à Joséphine*.

Maria Louisa, second wife of Napoleon, was the daughter of the

Emperor Francis II. and of Maria de Bourbon, Princess of Naples and Sicily. She was exceedingly well educated, loved study, and was mistress of the French, Latin, and English languages; she also cultivated music and painting with great success. She was married to Napoleon April 2, 1810, and March 20, 1811, a son was born, who took the title of King of Rome. After Napoleon's disastrous campaign in Russia, he reorganized new forces to defend the frontiers of France. On leaving Paris he confided the regency to Maria Louisa. When the allied armies were marching on Paris, though she had nothing personally to fear from the approaching enemy, she yielded to timidity, precipitately abandoned the capital, and retired to Blois. After Napoleon had signed his abdication at Fontainebleau, General Sacken conveyed her from Blois to Orleans, where he confided her to the care of Prince Esterhazy, who was charged to present her to her father at the château of Rambouillet. Francis II. sent her with her infant son to Austria, and assigned her the magnificent and picturesque château of Schönbrunn for her residence. The treaty of Fontainebleau secured to her the duchy of Parma, Piacenza, and Guastalla. In 1816, Maria Louisa left her son in Vienna and took possession of her duchy. After Napoleon's death, being debarred from any habitual communication with her family, she formed a private marriage with her prime minister, the Count de Neipperg, by whom she had two children. The count governed the duchy of Parma with talent and judgment for fourteen years, and died in 1828. His marriage with the widow of Napoleon not having been declared, she retained the title of the widow of Napoleon the Great. The revolution of 1830 compelled her to leave Parma, and she remained at Piacenza until, after some time, order was restored by the Austrian arms. She was absent from Parma during the outbreak of June, 1847, and died in Vienna soon afterwards.

Napoleon II., Napoleon Francis Joseph Charles, son of Napoleon I. and of Maria Louisa of Austria, was born in Paris, March 20, 1811. When his father was compelled to abdicate, in 1814, he went with his mother to Vienna. On Napoleon's return from Elba, in 1815, an attempt was made to remove the young prince, but was frustrated by the Austrian authorities. In 1818, the Emperor Francis, having bestowed on his grandson the title of Duke of Reichstadt, by letters patent, granted the young prince the dignity of serene highness, with a rank next after the princes of the blood, and a particular coat of arms. Reichstadt is a lordship in Bohemia. The chief town, of the same name, and lying about fifty miles northeast of Prague, contains a beautiful castle and about two thousand inhabitants. The revenue of

the lordship is about one hundred and sixty thousand dollars. The young duke was carefully educated by his grandfather, especially in the military art. He was made a lieutenant-colonel in 1831, and commanded a battalion of Hungarian infantry in the garrison of Vienna; but his death, when he was twenty-one years old, cut him off before he had reached an age in which he might have displayed any abilities he possessed. In Austrian and other German official papers his name was given as Francis Joseph Charles only. The validity of the abdication of his father in his favor was never admitted by the allies, nor was it ever claimed by the French government, and he never assumed the title of Napoleon II. But in 1852, when the resumption of empire by Louis Napoleon rendered some title necessary, he was considered Napoleon II., and the new Emperor took the title of Napoleon III. The latter title having been recognized by the several governments of Europe, the recognition of the former is implied. The constitution of the Duke of Reichstadt was weak, and early symptoms of consumption unfitted him for the laborious duties of a military career. He died at Schönbrunn in July, 1832.

Louis XVIII., the brother of Louis XVI., was called to the throne in 1815, by the French senate, assuming to act for the people. He possessed great goodness of heart and strict integrity. He was a man of some learning, but his abilities and capacity for government were very moderate. He reigned peaceably until his death, which took place in 1824.

Marie Joséphine Louise, wife of Louis XVIII., was a princess of Savoy.

Charles X., brother of Louis XVIII., alienated his people by limiting the freedom of the press, and was dethroned in the Three Days' Revolution, in 1830. Charles died at Görz in 1836. His only surviving descendant in the male line is his grandson, the Count de Chambord. His wife was Marie Thérèse of Savoy, who, with her sister, the widow of Louis XVIII., lived and died in obscurity and exile.

Louis Philippe I. was elected *King of the French* in 1830. He was the eldest son of Louis Philippe, Duke of Orleans (*Égalité*). His wife was Mary Amelia, daughter of Ferdinand IV., King of the Two Sicilies.

Pope Pius VI. When the French Revolution broke out, a popular tumult in Rome followed, caused by the imprudence of a French political agent named De Basseville, which, resulting in his death, gave the French Directory an opportunity of hostile demonstrations against the Pope. In 1796, Bonaparte took possession of the Legations, and

afterwards of the march of Ancona, and, by a threatened advance upon Rome, extorted from Pius, in the treaty of Tolentino, the surrender of those provinces to the Cisalpine Republic, together with a heavy war contribution. The year 1797 was marked by a continuance of the same vexatious measures; and at length the Directory ordered the invasion of Rome. Berthier entered the city in February, 1798, and took possession of the castle of St. Angelo. Pius was called on to renounce his temporal sovereignty, and, on his refusal, was seized and carried away to Siena, and afterwards to the celebrated Certosa, or Carthusian monastery of Florence. On the threatened advance of the Austrian and Russian army in the following year, he was transferred to Grenoble, and finally to Valence, on the Rhone, where, worn out by age and by the rigor of confinement, he died in 1799, in the eighty-second year of his age and the twenty-fourth of his pontificate.

Pius VII. was chosen his successor in 1800. Rome, which had been in the occupation of the French, was now restored to the papal authority. Bonaparte had resolved to restore religion in France on the ancient basis of connection with Rome. With this view he entered into negotiations with Pius VII. for the establishment of a concordat suited to the new order of things which had arisen. The concordat was agreed to in Paris, ratified in Rome, and published in Notre-Dame on Easter Sunday, 1802. But simultaneously with the concordat, and as if forming part of the same arrangement, was published a code of what were called "Organic Laws," seriously affecting the discipline of the Church on marriage, on the clergy, and on public worship, which had never been submitted to Pius, and to which he found himself compelled to offer every opposition. During the first year which succeeded the publication of the concordat no occasion of difficulty arose; but conflict of principles was in the end inevitable.

In 1804, Bonaparte, having resolved on assuming the imperial crown, invited Pius to come to Paris for the purpose of crowning him, and the Pope, although with much hesitation, consented. He took advantage of his visit to demand the recall or modification of the articles, but without success; and although during his visit to Paris he was treated with great distinction and reverence, his relations with Napoleon from that date began to assume a less friendly character. The French Emperor now proceeded from one petty outrage to another, until in 1808 the French troops entered Rome, and a decree was issued annexing the provinces of Ancona, Fermo, Urbino, and Macerata to the kingdom of Italy. Pius, besides protesting against the usurpation, declared himself a prisoner in the hands of the French, and

confined himself to his palace. Finally, in 1809, a decree annexed Rome and all the remaining papal territory to the French Empire. Pius VII. now abandoned his policy of forbearance, and issued a bull of excommunication, directed (without naming Napoleon) against the perpetrators and abettors of the invasion of the rights and the territory of the Holy See. Soon after, the French general ordered the removal of the Pope from Rome; and Pius, without offering any resistance beyond the declaration that he yielded to force, was removed, first to Florence, then to Grenoble, thence for a longer time to Savona, and finally, in 1812, to Fontainebleau. During this prolonged captivity, Pius quietly but firmly resisted every effort to compel or seduce him from his policy. At Fontainebleau he was treated with much external respect, and on Napoleon's return from the Russian campaign orders were given that the cardinals, with certain exceptions, should be admitted to the presence of the Pope. Under much pressure, both from the Emperor himself—who is alleged by some to have acted with great rudeness, and even with personal violence—and from the ecclesiastics to whom the Emperor confided his plans, Pius was induced to sign a new concordat, an important provision of which was the recognition of the annexation of the Roman states to the empire. Having obtained the concession, Napoleon at once permitted the absent cardinals to return, and of these, many remonstrated so earnestly against the concordat that Pius wrote to revoke his consent. Napoleon took no notice of the revocation, nor was it until after the disasters of 1813 that he began to seek an accommodation. Pius refused to treat until he should be restored to Rome, and in January, 1814, orders were sent for his immediate return to his capital. Unattended by the cardinals, he was escorted to Italy, and remained at Cesena until the fatal campaign of the spring of 1814 placed Paris in the hands of the allies, when Pius re-entered Rome, amidst the gratulations of the people, on May 24, 1814,—a day since that time held sacred in the Roman calendar. During the Hundred Days he was again compelled to leave Rome; but after the campaign of Waterloo he finally resumed possession, which was undisturbed for the rest of his life, and which extended to the whole of the ancient territory, including the Legations. The last years of his pontificate were devoted to measures of internal administration, and were marked by much wisdom and moderation. In 1814 he formally restored the suppressed order of the Jesuits. In 1817 and the following years he concluded concordats with Naples, Prussia, Württemberg, and other courts of Germany. In this and every other period of his life Pius VII. was a model of gentleness,

simplicity, benevolence, and Christian charity. Having reached the age of eighty-one, he fell accidentally in his own apartments and broke his thigh. Under the inflammation which ensued he sank gradually, and died in August, 1823.

Leo XII. succeeded Pius VII. in September, 1823. As Pope he made himself beloved by the people, by the remission of many taxes, by his benevolence, and by personally inspecting the public institutions for the poor, the hospitals, and the prisons. His firm maintenance of the rights of the court of Rome involved him in disputes with the French and Austrian governments in 1824. He gave the Jesuits and their general the Roman college, which they had possessed until 1773, together with the Church of the Holy Ignatius, the *oratorium*, the museum, the library, and the observatory, in order that they might devote themselves entirely to the education of the young. Leo also strengthened the connection of the apostolic see with the Spanish-American republics, endeavored to free the States of the Church from robbers and banditti, as well as to repress the remains of Carbonarism, and in 1825 restored the prisons of the Inquisition. He died in 1829.

Pius VIII., who succeeded Leo, died in December, 1830.

Gregory XVI., in February, 1831, was elected to the pontificate. His reign was troubled from the very beginning by insurrectionary movements, started chiefly through the agency of secret political associations. The fiercest of these movements took place at the very beginning of his pontificate, and cannot be considered as expressive of any dislike of the person of the pontiff, whatever reflections it may give rise to touching the system of the temporal papal government. Gregory's advisers were sternly conservative, and had recourse more than once to Austrian intervention for the repression of disturbances in the States of the Church.

Paul I., *Emperor of Russia*, succeeded his mother on the imperial throne in 1796. The neglect and want of confidence with which his mother treated him exerted a baneful influence upon his character, being kept in compulsory seclusion while Catherine shared the administration of the government with her favorites. In 1776, Paul, on the death of his first wife, a princess of Hesse-Darmstadt, married the Princess Dorothea of Würtemberg, by whom he had four sons,—the late Emperors Alexander and Nicholas, the Grand Dukes Constantine and Michael, and several daughters. After spending some years in traveling with his wife through Germany, France, and Italy, Paul was recalled by his mother, who assigned to him the palace of Gatchina, thirty miles from St. Petersburg, as his settled residence,

while she took his children under her own immediate care. The death of the Empress released him from his unnatural restraint, and he ascended the throne with no practical acquaintance with the mechanism of government, and no knowledge of the people over whom he was called to rule. A determination to change everything that had existed under the previous reign, and to wreak vengeance on his father's murderers, were the predominating influences which guided his actions; and his earliest measures, which were the disgrace of his father's murderers, and the pardon of all Polish prisoners, gave hopes of a good reign; but the capricious violence of character and incapacity for business which Paul betrayed soon disappointed the hopes he had awakened. No department of the state was free from his frivolous interference, and no class of the nation was exempt from the effect of his arbitrary legislation. While he irritated the soldiery by vexatious regulations in regard to their dress, he offended the nobles by imperious enactments as to the ceremonials to be observed in his presence. His foreign policy was marked by similar caprice. After having adopted a system of neutrality in the war between France and the rest of Europe, he suddenly declared in favor of the allied powers, and sent an army of fifty-six thousand men under Suvaroff into Italy. The success of his general encouraged him to send a second army of equal strength to co-operate with the Austrians; but their defeat in 1799 induced him to recall Suvaroff with the Russian troops; and, having retired from the allied coalition without giving any reason for his conduct, he quarreled with England because she would not comply with his whimsical demand for the surrender of Malta and recognition of himself as grand master of the order of Malta, then entered into a close alliance with Bonaparte, who was at that time First Consul. The jealousy and hatred of England by which both were actuated proved a powerful bond of union between them; and in furtherance of their scheme of uniting all the smaller maritime powers into one vast confederation against England, Paul concluded a convention with Sweden and Denmark, for the purpose of opposing the right insisted on by England of searching neutral vessels. The result was that the English government sent a fleet into the Baltic under Nelson to dissolve the coalition, at the close of March, 1801. Paul was preparing to give material aid to the Danes, when a conspiracy was formed at St. Petersburg to put a stop to the capricious despotism under which all classes in Russia were groaning. The conspirators, whose numbers included Count Pahlen, the most influential man at court, General Benningsen, Ouvaroff, and many other distin-

guished nobles and officers, appear to have intended originally only to force Paul to abdicate, but his obstinate disposition led to a scuffle, in which the Emperor was strangled, March 24, 1801.

Alexander I. ascended the throne immediately on the death of his father, and was crowned on the 27th of September of the same year, in Moscow. He married, in 1793, Elizabeth (previously called *Louisa Maria Augusta*), third daughter of Charles Louis, hereditary prince of Baden. Alexander was one of the most important men of modern times. He was a great benefactor of his own country, and did some good and a great deal of evil to Europe. Nature had endowed him with great talents, which were judiciously cultivated by his mother and his instructors. He recognized the spirit of the age; frequently acted in accordance with liberal principles; had sense enough to know that a monarch, to play an important part, must respect the wishes of the people, whatever his ultimate object may be; loved justice, if it did not militate with his love of power, which was, indeed, of a higher order than that of a common tyrant, and sought to make himself, like Napoleon, master of Europe, though with different means. His father did not take any part in his education, which was directed by the Empress Catherine and Colonel Laharpe. His mother, the daughter of Duke Eugene of Würtemberg, always possessed his love and confidence, and retained a great influence over him throughout his reign. He took part, it is probable, in the conspiracy against his father, though it is not likely that he had the slightest design upon his life. He wished to save himself and many nobles of the empire from the mad persecution of the Emperor, and nothing short of dethroning him could afford them safety. The history of his government may be divided into three periods. The first was peaceful, and entirely devoted to the execution of the schemes of Peter the Great and Catherine II. respecting the internal administration. The second, extending from 1805 to 1814, was a time of war with France, Sweden, the Porte, and Persia, and developed the resources and the national feeling of the people. In the third period he used the experience acquired in the two preceding to carry into effect the declaration of Peter the Great, made one hundred years before, in 1714, after a victory over the Swedish fleet near the Aland Islands: "Nature has but one Russia, and it shall have no rival." Alexander was distinguished for moderation, activity, and attention to business, personally superintending the multiplied concerns of his vast empire, while his simple and amiable manners gained him the love and confidence of his subjects. He understood and was zealous in promoting

the welfare of his people. Great attention was paid during his reign to education and intellectual culture. He founded, or remodeled, seven universities, two hundred and four academies, many seminaries for the education of instructors, and above two thousand common schools, partly after the system of Lancaster. The shackles which hung on the industry of the nation were removed, and its commerce increased. He likewise advanced the military establishments of Russia to a high degree of perfection, developed in his people the sentiments of union, courage, and patriotism, raised Russia to a high rank in the political system of Europe, and made its importance felt even in Asia. He once remarked to Madame de Staël, "You will be offended with the sight of servitude in this land. It is not my fault; I have set the example of emancipation, but I cannot employ force; I must respect the rights of others as much as if they were protected by a constitution, which, unhappily, does not exist." Madame de Staël answered, "Sire, your character is a constitution." Alexander accompanied his wife on a journey to the Crimea for her health; but he himself fell ill at Taganrog of a bilious fever, and died in the arms of his wife, December 1, 1825. They had no children.

Nicholas I., third son of Paul I. by his second wife, daughter of Duke Eugene of Würtemberg, was educated under the direction of his mother, who was a virtuous, thoughtful, and domestic German woman. He showed comparatively little interest in scientific attainments, with the exception of political economy, but was quick in mastering foreign languages. He grew up during the time of the wars of Napoleon, which tended to increase his natural fondness for military life. He married, in 1817, Charlotte of Prussia, the eldest daughter of Frederic William III. On the news of the death of his eldest brother, the Emperor Alexander I., Nicholas, together with the whole nation, took the oath of allegiance to Constantine, and he did not assume the reins of power until the latter, who then resided at Warsaw, had publicly signified his determination not to reign. The accession of Nicholas to the throne became the signal of a formidable insurrection, in the prompt suppression of which the new Emperor showed great personal courage and presence of mind, but at the same time a cold-blooded and unrelenting disposition. Capital punishment, which had been abolished by the Empress Elizabeth, was revived by Nicholas for the purpose of inflicting it upon the five principal leaders of the insurrection, who were publicly executed in St. Petersburg. The fifth and last in order was the poet Rileyeff. The rope broke, and he fell to the ground still alive. The sight of his agony created such a degree of sympathy in

the assembled multitude that the governor-general sent for instruction to the Emperor. The command of Nicholas was, "Take a stronger rope and proceed with the execution." The other parties to the insurrection were banished to Siberia, some for life, and others for twenty years or for shorter periods; but the sentence of none of them was ever commuted. The insurgents declared that they were prompted to the attempt by the desolate condition to which the latter part of the reign of Alexander I. had reduced the empire, by the ferocious disposition of Constantine, and by the supposed incapacity of the new Emperor. Nicholas, who was present during the examination of the prisoners, hidden behind a screen, thus received a wholesome lesson; and his first endeavor was to labor for the moral and social regeneration of the country. The brilliant though dearly purchased victories of Paskiewitsch and Diebitsch over Persia and Turkey, in 1828-9, contributed to add prestige to his government, especially as the Turkish war also saved the independence of struggling Greece, as well as that of the Danubian principalities, which were now reorganized under a Russian protectorate. The revolution of 1830-31, in Poland, threatening at first to complicate the foreign relations of Russia, terminated in the annihilation of Polish nationality, and the absorption of that country in the empire of the Czar. These events, accomplished in rapid succession, surrounded Nicholas with a halo of glory. His attempt to develop the native energies of the Russian nation, and to oppose the foreign influences which, under Catherine II. and Alexander I., had hindered the progress of the national genius, constituted the origin of the so-called Russian governmental Panslavism; and many strong and active intellects, attracted by the earnestness of his patriotic efforts, rallied under his banner. He even for some time relaxed the rigor of the censorship, combated the venality of public men, and ordered the codification of the laws. His want of discrimination in the selection of his ministers, the adulation of courtiers at home and of despotic sovereigns abroad, and the temptations of power caused him to relapse into the most rigid absolutism; and Russia soon presented again the spectacle of a vast empire ruled by the iron hand of a single man, whose power rested upon a colossal military organization, pervading all branches of the administration, and upon the blind agency of servile ministers.

Frederic William III. of Prussia, son of Frederic William II., was born in 1770. He early took part in the administration, and on his accession to the throne, in 1797, he at once dismissed the unworthy favorites of the preceding reign, and, accompanied by his beautiful

young queen, Louisa of Mecklenburg-Strelitz, made a tour of inspection through the numerous provinces of his kingdom, with a view of investigating their condition and contributing to their local and general improvement. But, although Frederic William was well-intentioned, and in his moral and domestic relations his conduct was exemplary, he lacked the dignity and force of will to cope with the difficulties of his position. By his efforts to maintain an attitude of neutrality in the great European struggle that had been excited by the wars and victories of the French, he awakened the distrust of all the anti-Gallican powers of Europe, and disappointed the petty German princes, who had looked upon Prussia as their protectress against foreign encroachments. Napoleon's promises of support and friendly intentions soon changed this neutrality to an alliance with France, and for some time Prussia persevered in her dishonorable and self-seeking policy, which was rewarded by the acquisition of Hildesheim, Paderborn, and Münster, which added nearly four thousand square miles of territory and half a million inhabitants to the kingdom; but at length the repeated and systematic insults of Napoleon, who despised Frederic William while he professed to treat him as a friend, roused the spirit of the nation, and the king saw himself obliged, in 1805, to agree to a convention with Russia, the real object of which was to drive Napoleon out of Germany. Again the treachery of Prussia led her to make a new treaty with France, by which she consented to receive the electorate of Hanover, and thus involved herself in a war with England. The insults of Napoleon were redoubled after this fresh proof of the king's indecision. The Prussian nation, headed by the queen, now called loudly for war, and at the close of 1806 the king yielded to these appeals. Hostilities began without further delay; but the defeat of the Prussians at Jena, Eylau, and Friedland compelled their unfortunate monarch to sue for peace. The Prussian army was annihilated, and the whole of the kingdom, with the exception of a few fortified places, remained in the power of the French. By the intervention of the Emperor Alexander of Russia, a peace was concluded, known as the Treaty of Tilsit, by which Frederic William lost the greater part of his realm, and was deprived of all but the semblance of royalty; but although for the next five years he was a mere tool in the hands of Napoleon, who seized every opportunity of humiliating and irritating him, his spirit was not subdued, and his unremitting efforts at this period of his life to reorganize his enfeebled government by self-sacrifices of every kind endeared him greatly to his people. The disastrous termination of Napoleon's Russian campaign was the turning-point in the

fortunes of Prussia ; for, although the French Emperor was victorious over the Prussians and Russians in the battles of Lützen and Bautzen, which were fought soon after the declaration of war which Frederic William had made against France, to the great joy of his people, in 1813, the allies were soon able to renew hostilities, which were carried on with signal success, until they finally culminated in the great battle of Leipsic, in which the Prussians, under their general, Blücher, earned the greatest share of glory. The Peace of Vienna restored to Prussia almost all her former possessions, while the part taken by the Prussian army under Blücher in gaining the victory of Waterloo, by which Napoleon's power was finally broken, raised the kingdom from its abasement.

From that time Frederic William devoted himself to the improvement of his exhausted states ; but, although before the French revolution of 1830 Prussia had recovered her old position in regard to material prosperity at home and political consideration abroad, the king adhered too strictly to the old German ideas of absolutism to grant his people more than the smallest possible amount of political liberty. He had indeed promised to establish a representative constitution for the whole kingdom, but this promise he wholly repudiated when reminded of it, and merely established the Landstände, or Provincial Estates, a local institution devoid of all effective power. His support of the Russian government in its sanguinary methods of crushing revolutionary tendencies in Poland showed his absolute tendencies and his dread of liberal principles. He was more than once embroiled with the Pope on account of his violation of the concordat. He concluded the great German commercial league known as the *Zollverein*, which organized the German customs and duties in accordance with one uniform system. Science, however, was patronized by him, and he could boast of the friendship of the Humboldts. In 1810 he lost his wife, the faithful companion of his misfortunes, and in 1824 he formed a morganatic marriage with the Countess Augusta of Harrach, whom he made Duchess of Liegnitz. His eldest daughter, Charlotte, took the name of *Alexandra Feodorowna* on her marriage with the Emperor Nicholas of Russia. Frederic William III. died in 1840, and the eldest of his four sons succeeded him as Frederic William IV.

Louisa Augusta Wilhelmina Amalia, wife of Frederic William III. of Prussia, was the daughter of Charles, Duke of Mecklenburg-Strelitz. She was born in 1776 at Hanover, where her father was commandant. When six years old she lost her mother, and her grandmother at Darmstadt took charge of her education. In 1793 the Crown Prince of

Prussia saw her at Frankfort, when she and her sister were presented to his father. The prince was immediately struck with her uncommon beauty, and was soon after betrothed to her. Prince Louis of Prussia was betrothed on the same day to her sister, who afterwards married a son of George III., Ernest, Duke of Cumberland, and later King of Hanover. In 1793 the Princess Louisa was married to the crown prince at Berlin, and when her husband ascended the throne, in 1797, she became, in her exalted station, the model of a wife, a mother, and a queen, who alleviated misery wherever she could, and promoted merit. In 1806, when Prussia was suffering severely under the burdens of war, she became still more popular ; indeed, her beauty and grace, her benevolent and pure character, her patriotism, her sufferings and her fortitude, rendered her an object almost of adoration. She accompanied her husband to Thuringia in the campaign of 1806, and after the battle of Jena to Königsberg. After the fatal battle of Friedland, in 1807, she visited Napoleon at Tilsit, with a view of obtaining for Prussia favorable conditions of peace ; but, not succeeding in her negotiations, she rejoined her husband at Memel, and in 1808 returned with him to Königsberg, from whence she proceeded at the end of the year to St. Petersburg. Her father was the first to follow her husband in the attempt to shake off the French yoke, exclaiming that, "with the help of God, he would at any rate show himself worthy of the honor of being a German prince." The sad reverses and afflictions it was the fate of Queen Louisa to undergo may be seen in the following letter which she wrote to her father :

"MEMEL, June 17, 1807.

"MY DEAREST FATHER,—I have perused your letter of April last with the deepest emotion, and amid tears of the most grateful sensations. How shall I thank you, dearest, kindest of fathers, for the many proofs you have shown me of your paternal love, your gracious favor, and indescribable benevolence ! What secret consolation is not this for me in my sufferings!—how strengthening to my spirits ! When one is thus beloved, to be completely unhappy is impossible. We are again threatened with another dire calamity, and are about to abandon the kingdom. Imagine my state of mind at this juncture ; but I solemnly beseech you not to mistake the feelings of your daughter. There are two grand principles by which I feel myself strengthened and elevated above everything : first, the recollection that we are not led blindly onward by chance, but are guided by the hand of God ; and secondly, that if we *must* sink, we, at all events, will do so with honor. The king has shown, and to the whole world he has proved

it, that he prefers honor to disgrace ; Prussia would never voluntarily wear the chains of slavery. The king, therefore, could not deviate one step without becoming unfaithful to his character and a traitor to his people. But to the point. By the unfortunate battle of Friedland, Königsberg has fallen into the hands of the French. We are surrounded on every side by the enemy, and as the danger advances I shall be forced to fly with my children from Memel, and then endeavor to reach Riga, trusting to Heaven to assist me in the dreaded moment when I have to pass the frontiers of the empire. And truly my strength and courage will then be required ; but I will look towards God with hope and confidence ; for, according to my firm persuasion, we are not suffered to endure more than we can. Once more, then, be assured, my dear father, that we yield only with honor, and respected as we shall be, we cannot be without friends, inasmuch as we have merited them. The consolation I experience by this conviction I cannot express to you ; and, consequently, I endure all my trials with that tranquillity and resignation of mind which can only be produced by a good conscience and a firm faith. Therefore, my dear father, be convinced that we can never be completely unhappy, while many, perhaps, whose brows are oppressed with the weight of crowns and wreaths, are as unhappy as ourselves ; for as long as we are blessed by Heaven with peace in our hearts, we must ever find cause to rejoice. I remain, forever, your faithfully dutiful and loving daughter, and God be praised that your gracious favor permits me to add—friend,

" LOUISA."

In 1809 she went to Berlin, and died the next year, while on a visit to her father at Strelitz.

Charles Theodore, Elector of Bavaria, died in 1799, and was succeeded by *Maximilian IV. Joseph*, who was born in 1756, at Schwetzingen, a village not far from Mannheim. His father was the Palatine Frederic, Austrian field-marshall. In 1777, Maximilian was made colonel of a French regiment at Strasburg. In 1795 his brother Charles died, and he became Duke of Deux-Ponts (Zweibrücken). When the Sulzbach palatine line became extinct by the death of the Elector Charles Theodore, the succession passed to the line of Deux-Ponts. Thus Maximilian became Elector. The Peace of Luneville, concluded in 1801, between Austria (also in the name of the German Empire) and the French Republic, essentially affected Bavaria. The valley of the Rhine formed the boundary of France, and the princes on the left bank of that river were to be indemnified by territories

within the empire. Whilst it lost all its possessions on the left bank of the Rhine, it gained in addition to the amount lost a surplus of two thousand one hundred and nine square miles and two hundred and sixteen thousand inhabitants. The political importance of Bavaria, with respect to Austria as well as to France, was more fully displayed in the war of 1805.

When Austria resumed hostilities against France, she required the Elector of Bavaria to unite his troops with the Austrian army, and refused to allow him to remain neutral, "which," as the Emperor Francis wrote to the elector in September, 1804, "France herself would only suffer as long as she should find it expedient." Bavaria, however, did not find it accordant with its own interests to place itself entirely in the power of Austria. At the beginning of the war, Maximilian Joseph joined the French with about thirty thousand troops, and the Peace of Presburg, in 1805, annexed to his dominions ten thousand five hundred and ninety-five square miles and one million of inhabitants, and conferred on him the dignity of *king*, in return for which he ceded Würzburg, which was erected into an electorate, in the place of Salzburg. The King of Bavaria, like the rulers of Württemberg and Baden, now assumed sovereignty over the lands of the nobility of the empire within his borders. The political connection recently formed with France was confirmed by the marriage of the Princess Augusta, daughter of Maximilian, with Eugene Beauharnais, Viceroy of Italy, step-son of the French Emperor. An immediate consequence of this alliance was the exchange of Berg, which Bavaria surrendered to Napoleon, for Anspach, which Prussia had given up to France in exchange for Hanover, and finally, what was most important, the signing of the Confederation of the Rhine, in July, 1806, in which Bavaria promised to bring into the field thirty thousand troops, and to fortify Augsburg and Lindau. Thereupon Maximilian Joseph was obliged to take part in the war against Prussia, in 1806, and in the war against Austria, in 1809, one of the consequences of which was the revolution of Tyrol. After its termination, Bavaria received important additions, partly at the expense of Austria, partly by treaties of exchange with Württemberg and Würzburg. When, in 1812, the war between France and Russia broke out, Bavaria again sent its whole proportion of troops to the French army. Insignificant remains only of the thirty thousand Bavarians returned in the spring of 1813. Maximilian Joseph, notwithstanding this sacrifice, placed fresh troops under the command of Napoleon as the protector of the Confederation of the Rhine, when the new campaign was opened, near the close of April.

This army also suffered great losses, but distinguished itself with its wonted bravery, under the command of Marshal Oudinot. At this time the whole political system of Bavaria was suddenly changed. Whilst the French army of observation was formed at Würzburg, under Augereau, a Bavarian corps of observation was placed on the Inn, over against a division of the Austrian army. For a long time both corps remained inactive. The departure of the corps of Augereau, by which Bavaria was exposed in its most vulnerable point, accelerated the resolution of its king. The distinguished Bavarian general Wrede concluded an armistice with the Austrian general Frimont, October 8, at Ried, which was followed by a proclamation, October 15, by which Maximilian Joseph abandoned the Confederation of the Rhine, and turned his forces against France. In this convention his present territories, with full sovereignty, were assured to the king, with a sufficient indemnification for those lands which should be made over to Austria. At the same time, General Wrede, as commander-in-chief, united the Austrian troops with his own, and turned the Bavarian arms against the French in the battle of Hanau. In 1815, Louis, the crown prince, took command of the national army. Meanwhile, the congress of Vienna, and, more particularly, the preparation of the statutes of the German diet, had given sufficient opportunity to the Bavarian government for the development of its system of diplomacy, and Bavaria has since jealously maintained its station as an independent sovereign state. Maximilian Joseph, when young, little expected to rule over Bavaria, and always retained the frankness of a soldier. He had a good heart, and was beloved by his subjects. Education, agriculture, the finances, and the administration in general were improved under his reign. His son-in-law, Eugene Beauharnais, took the title of Duke of Leuchtenberg in 1817; the Bavarian principality of Eichstädt was bestowed upon him, and his posterity was declared capable of inheriting in case of the failure of the Bavarian line. Eugene, under a simple exterior, concealed a noble character and great talents. Honor, integrity, humanity, and love of order and justice were his principal traits. Wise in the council, undaunted in the field, and moderate in the exercise of power, he never appeared greater than in the midst of reverses, as the events of 1813-14 proved. He was inaccessible to the spirit of party, benevolent and beneficent, and more devoted to the good of others than his own. He died at Munich of an organic disorder of the brain, in 1824. His son Augustus succeeded him; his eldest daughter, in 1823, married Oscar, Crown Prince of Sweden, son of Charles XIV.; his second daughter, Hortensia Eugenia, was married to the

Prince of Hohenzollern-Hechingen, in 1826; and Amalia Eugenia married the Emperor of Brazil, in 1829. Maximilian Joseph I., King of Bavaria, died in 1825, and was succeeded by his son Louis I.

Ferdinand I., King of the Two Sicilies (or Ferdinand IV. of Naples), was born in Naples in 1751, and died in the same city in 1825. When, in 1759, his father, Charles III., became king of Spain, he succeeded him upon the throne of Naples, in accordance with a family statute which prohibited the reunion of the two crowns. In 1768 he married Caroline Maria, daughter of the Empress Maria Theresa, and left the affairs of government to his imperious wife and her favorite minister, Acton. The cabinet of Madrid lost all influence over the court of Naples, which closely allied itself with the cabinets of Vienna and London, and in 1794 joined the coalition against France. Though forced, in 1796, to make peace with France, Ferdinand renewed the war after the departure of Napoleon to Egypt, and drew upon his kingdom the arms of the French, who in 1799 entered Naples. Ferdinand, with his family, escaped in an English fleet to Palermo, and the Parthenopian Republic was instituted in Naples. After a few months, however, Ferdinand was restored to his capital by a Calabrian army under Cardinal Ruffo. Terrible reprisals were now visited upon the republicans: the city was abandoned to the lazzaroni, and Ferdinand seemed to have returned only to shed the blood of his subjects. The successes of the French in Germany and Italy obliged Ferdinand, in 1801, to sign a treaty, under which he was forced to surrender a portion of his territory, and to support French troops in the remainder, thus putting Naples under the domination of France. When the war broke out in 1805 between France and Austria, the haughty Neapolitan queen thought it a favorable opportunity for throwing off the French yoke, and prompted Ferdinand to violate the treaty and to receive the support of an Anglo-Russian army. Hardly had he done this, when Austria, conquered at Austerlitz, signed the treaty of Presburg. The *Moniteur* in a significant article declared that of three daughters of Maria Theresa, one had destroyed the Bourbon monarchy, the second had ruined the House of Parma, and now the third had lost the throne of Naples. Napoleon sent an army against Naples, obliged Ferdinand and his queen again to take refuge in Sicily, refused offers of negotiation, and in 1806 declared that the House of Bourbon had ceased to reign over that kingdom, and gave the throne first to his brother Joseph, and in 1808 to his brother-in-law, Murat. Ferdinand, protected by England, was able to save Sicily from French conquest; but Queen Caroline, as little willing to bear English as French supremacy,

embroiled herself with the English ambassador, Lord William Bentinck, and was obliged to leave the island, in 1811, and went to Austria, where she subsequently died; and Ferdinand was forced to resign his government to his son Francis. After Murat was dethroned by Austria, in 1815, Ferdinand was restored to his throne, and in 1817 united Sicily and Naples into a single state, under the title of the Two Sicilies. He abolished the constitution which he had been forced to grant in 1812, but, rising of the Carbonari in 1820 obliged him to promise to restore it. He was soon after re-established in absolute power by the Austrians. He expelled the Jesuits, and abolished superfluous convents. He died in January, 1825.

Francis I. succeeded him, and followed in his father's footsteps; the slightest political disorder was severely punished, what remained of provincial liberties was abolished, and the people were kept in abject ignorance. He died in 1830.

Ferdinand II. was the son of Francis I. by his second wife, Isabella Maria of Spain. He succeeded his father in 1830. The country was in the most wretched condition; and all eyes were turned to the young king, the beginning of whose reign was marked by various acts of clemency towards political enemies, and also by the introduction of reforms in the economy and government of the country. But it was not long before he began to listen to foreign counsels, which saw danger for the whole peninsula in liberal measures. From that time Naples became the scene of incessant conspiracy, insurrection, bloodshed, and political prosecutions.

Charles IV., King of Spain, came to the throne in 1788, and at first continued to pursue the reformatory policy of his father, Charles III.; but after 1792 he gave himself up to the pernicious influence of Manuel Godoy, Duke of Alcudia. At first Spain joined the alliance against the French Republic, but was soon compelled to conclude the inglorious Peace of Basel, in 1795, by which St. Domingo was ceded to France. In 1796, Godoy entered with France into the offensive and defensive league of San Ildefonso, for which he received the title of "Prince of the Peace," and declared war against England. Spain lost continually, being obliged to cede Trinidad to England, Parma to the Cisalpine Republic, and Louisiana to France. In 1804, Spain again declared war against England, and Lord Nelson, in 1805, totally defeated the combined French and Spanish fleets off Trafalgar. Spain was now in so lamentable a condition that Godoy formed a plan to flee with the royal family to Mexico, which was frustrated by an insurrection of the people, who compelled the king, in 1808, to abdicate in

favor of the Prince of Asturias, who ascended the throne as Ferdinand VII.

Ferdinand VII. was the son of Charles IV. and of the Princess Maria Louisa of Parma. In 1802 he married the amiable and accomplished Maria Antonietta Theresa, daughter of Ferdinand I., King of the Two Sicilies. This lady, who endeavored to maintain her husband's dignity, died, in 1806, of grief, it is supposed, at the insults offered to her by Godoy, by the king himself, and above all by the queen. Almost immediately after Charles abdicated he wrote to Napoleon declaring his abdication to be forced. Napoleon, who had designs of his own upon Spain, refused to recognize Ferdinand as king, but sent him an invitation to meet him at Bayonne. In spite of all warnings to the contrary, Ferdinand repaired to Bayonne, at which place he was received with distinction by Napoleon. Meanwhile, however, the French troops under Murat had marched across the Pyrenees and taken possession of the Spanish capital. The wretched squabbles and recriminations that now took place between Charles and his son, and which were encouraged by Napoleon, ended in Ferdinand's renouncing the crown unconditionally, receiving for himself and his posterity an annual income of six hundred thousand francs from the crown revenues of France, and likewise the palace and parks of Navarre. The château of Valençay, belonging to Prince Talleyrand, was assigned to him as a residence, along with his brother, Don Carlos, his uncle, Don Antonio, the Canon Escoiquiz, and the Duke of San Carlos. Napoleon then gave the crown of Spain to his brother Joseph. It was not till the end of the year 1813, when the splendid series of British triumphs in the Peninsula under Wellington had made a longer occupation of the country by the French impossible, that Napoleon offered to reinstate Ferdinand on the throne of Spain.

On the 14th of March, Ferdinand returned to Spain, where he was received with every demonstration of loyalty and affection. Very unfortunately for Spain, and also for his own comfort, Ferdinand had, in the mean time, learned to associate liberalism with Jacobinism, and both with Bonapartism, so that on his re-accession to power he threw himself into the hands of the clergy and the reactionary portion of his nobility. From the moment he assumed the reins of government, a series of transactions took place which excited the astonishment and disgust of all liberal-minded politicians in Europe. Instead of the promised constitution, a fearful system of persecution was commenced against all who were suspected of holding liberal opinions; and executions, imprisonment, exile, and confiscation of property reigned

in all parts of the kingdom. The monastic orders, the inquisition, and the rack were restored, and every expression of opinion was rigorously repressed. At length, in January, 1820, an insurrection broke out, and Ferdinand was compelled to restore the constitution of the cortes of 1812; but, the French government interfering by force of arms, absolutism was restored in Spain in 1823. In 1829, Ferdinand married the notorious Maria Christina. She was his *fourth* spouse. By the first three he had no children. Maria, however, bore him two children,—Isabella II., who succeeded him; and the Infanta Maria Louisa, who married the Duke of Montpensier, son of Louis Philippe, King of France. By the influence of Maria Christina, Ferdinand was induced to abrogate the Salic law, excluding females from the throne, and to restore the old Castilian law of cognate succession. This step led to a dangerous combination among the adherents of the king's brother, Don Carlos, during the lifetime of Ferdinand, and after his death to a civil war. In June, 1833, the deputies, cortes, and grandes of the kingdom took the oath of fealty, and did homage to the Princess of Asturias; and Ferdinand died in September of the same year.

John VI., Emperor and King of Portugal and Brazil, was born in 1767. On account of the mental derangement of his mother, Queen Francisca, he was proclaimed director of the government in Portugal in 1792. Napoleon sent his troops into Portugal in 1807, and John embarked for Brazil with his family, landing at Rio Janeiro in January, 1808. In 1815 he raised Brazil to the rank of a kingdom, and united all his states into one monarchy. After the death of his mother, in 1816, he became king. In 1821 he returned to Portugal, and the Crown Prince Pedro remained in Brazil. This vast country separated itself entirely from the mother country, where an absolute government was in the mean time established. John was incompetent to unite the constitutionalists and royalists. He was himself in danger of falling a victim to the intrigues of the latter, when he was rescued by an English vessel in the Tagus. Portugal and Brazil also assumed a hostile attitude; but in 1825, by the mediation of England, John VI. concluded a treaty with his son, the Emperor Pedro I. of Brazil, in which he acknowledged that country as an independent kingdom, wholly separate from Portugal, and his son as Emperor, reserving for himself personally the title of Emperor of Brazil. This good-natured monarch, who was incompetent to struggle with the troubles of his age and the political degeneracy of his nation, died in 1826, having previously appointed his daughter Isabella regent of Portugal. John VI. married the Infanta Charlotte, daughter of Charles IV. of Spain.

His second daughter, Maria, wife of Ferdinand VII. of Spain, died in 1818; a third was the wife of Charles, Infant of Spain.

The government of Pedro I. of Brazil was very vigorous, but a war which broke out between his supporters and the advocates of republicanism distracted the country for a time, and prevented the liberal measures of the government from taking full effect. In 1825 his title was recognized by the Portuguese cortes; and the death of his father, John VI., in the following year, opened for him the succession to the throne of Portugal. This revived the national spirit of the Brazilian Chambers, who feared that they were about to be reduced to a dependent state, and Pedro's hasty and passionate temper led him to measures which whetted the general discontent. But he merely retained the dignity of King of Portugal long enough to show his right to it, and, after granting a more liberal constitution, immediately resigned in favor of his daughter, Doña Maria da Gloria, on condition of her marriage with her uncle, Don Miguel. The disturbances in Brazil still increased, the finances fell into disorder, and the Emperor's second marriage with the Princess Amalia of Leuchtenberg displeased his subjects; and after making various ineffectual attempts to restore tranquillity, he was compelled, by the revolution of July, 1831, to resign the throne in favor of his son, Pedro II., a boy five and a half years old. Pedro then sailed for Portugal, where his brother Miguel had usurped the throne, and, with the aid of an army which was swelled by French and English volunteers, he drove away the usurper, and *Doña Maria* made her entry into Lisbon in 1833. In the following year, Don Miguel signed the Convention of Evora, by which he renounced all pretensions to the throne and agreed to quit Portugal. The death of Don Pedro in the same year, after he had effected several important reforms, proved a heavy misfortune to Portugal, which suffered severely from the mercenary rule of those who occupied places of trust about the person of the young queen. Her marriage, in 1835, with Augustus, Duke of Leuchtenberg, his death at the end of a few months, and her second marriage, in 1836, with Prince Ferdinand of Saxe-Coburg, were followed by grave political disturbances, which in course of time were aggravated by the personal avarice and want of good faith of those in whom the young queen placed her confidence.

Switzerland. The Swiss had little influence in foreign politics during the eighteenth century; and, until towards its close, they suffered little from foreign interference. This tranquillity, which, however, was often interrupted by internal dissensions, was alike favorable to the progress of commerce, agriculture, and manufactures, and to the arts and sci-

ences. In almost every department of human knowledge the Swiss of the eighteenth century, both at home and abroad, acquired distinguished reputation, as the names of Haller, Bonnet, Bernouilli, J. J. Rousseau, Lavater, Bodmer, Breitinger, Gessner, Sulzer, Hirzel, Fuseli, Hottinger, John von Müller, Pestalozzi, and many others, bear witness. There were no oppressive taxes, and almost everywhere the government was conscientiously conducted; the administration of justice was cheap and simple, and benevolent institutions were numerous. Although the Swiss had at first firmly maintained their neutrality in the wars of the French Revolution, French power and intrigue gradually deprived them of their former constitution; and, after incorporating several portions of Switzerland with the French and Cisalpine Republics, the French converted the Swiss Confederacy into the Helvetic Republic, one and indivisible, under an executive directory of five persons. The legislative power was divided between a senate and a great council, to which each of the fourteen cantons elected twelve members.

It was in vain that some of the democratic cantons attempted to prevent this revolution. They were speedily overpowered. But the oppressions of the French, the arbitrary manner in which they disposed of the highest offices, and the great number of weak and corrupt men who were raised to power, soon made the new officers contemptible. Aloys Reding, a man of enterprising spirit, whose family was celebrated in the annals of his country, formed the plan of overthrowing the central government, and Reding imagined that Bonaparte himself, who had just withdrawn his troops from Switzerland, would favor his plan. But, as all the cantons did not agree, a civil war was the consequence. Bonaparte offered the cantons his mediation. Twelve thousand French troops entered Switzerland under Ney, and Reding and Hirzel were imprisoned. The act of mediation, in 1803, restored the cantonal system, and granted freedom to the former subjects of the cantons. The cantons were then nineteen in number. The republic of Valais was changed, by a decree of Napoleon, in 1810, into a department of France; and as early as 1806 he granted Neufchâtel (which had been ceded to him by Prussia, but which was under the protection of Switzerland) to General Berthier, as a sovereign principality. Napoleon assumed the title of "Mediator of Switzerland," and the military service required of the Swiss became more and more oppressive. It was only by great firmness and the sacrifice of immense sums of money that most of the cantonal governments averted greater oppression. They were obliged to adopt the continental system, and the canton of Tessin was long garrisoned by French troops. In 1813, when the

theatre of war approached Switzerland, France permitted the Swiss to maintain their neutrality; but the allies expressed themselves ambiguously, and large armies were soon marched through the country in various directions to France. Their arrival excited a fermentation in many quarters. At length a diet assembled in Zurich, in 1814, and new articles of confederation were agreed upon by nineteen cantons. They resembled the old federal pact in many respects. This confederacy was acknowledged by the congress of Vienna. The bishopric of Basel, with Biel, was given to the canton of Berne, excepting the district of Birseck, which fell to Basel, and a small portion which fell to Neufchâtel. The former relations of the latter place to Prussia were restored, and, with Geneva and the Valais, it joined the confederacy of the Swiss cantons, making their number twenty-two. In 1815 the compact of Zurich was publicly and solemnly adopted, after the deputies of the confederacy at Vienna had given in their accession to the acts of the congress of Vienna so far as they related to Switzerland. Then the eight powers, Austria, Russia, France, England, Prussia, Spain, Portugal, and Sweden, proclaimed by a separate act the perpetual neutrality of Switzerland and the inviolability of its soil. Soon after, Switzerland became a member of the Holy Alliance. But the political state of the Swiss cantons, as settled by the congress of Vienna and jealously watched by the Holy Alliance, gave rise to much dissatisfaction in the great body of the people. This state of things continued until the French revolution of July 30, 1830, set the example for various risings in the country, and led to a revision of the constitution, the abolition of privileges, the extension of the right of election, the abolition of the censorship of the press, etc. The ordinary session of the diet took place at Lucerne, in 1831, and the common concerns of the confederacy, both in its foreign and domestic relations, were found to be in a satisfactory condition. Towards the close of 1831 the canton of Neufchâtel was disturbed by risings of some portions of the population, who renounced the authority of Prussia, and demanded a new constitution; but the insurgents were soon put down, and tranquillity restored.

Frederic Eugene, Duke of Würtemberg.* Through his mother, a Prussian princess (from 1733 to 1797 the princes of Würtemberg were Catholics), Protestantism became again the religion of its rulers. During the government of Frederic Eugene, the French Republic

* Frederic Eugene, in 1793, succeeded his brother, the eccentric Duke Charles, who founded the Charles's school, in which Schiller was educated.

took possession of the Würtemberg territories on the left bank of the Rhine, and repeatedly occupied the duchy.

Frederic I. (Wilhelm Karl), son of Duke Frederic Eugene, was born in 1754. He received his first instruction from his accomplished mother, a princess of Brandenburg-Schwedt, and completed his education at Lausanne, after the French fashion of that period, served in the bloodless war of the Bavarian Succession, accompanied his brother-in-law, the future Russian Emperor Paul, on a journey to Italy, in 1782, took service in Russia as Governor-General of Russian Finland, and, after having left it in 1787, lived for some time in retirement. In 1790 he was a spectator of the sessions of the French National Assembly; in 1796 he fought unsuccessfully against the French, on the Rhine, and, being compelled to leave his country, retired to Anspach, and subsequently to Vienna and London. In the following year he returned to Würtemberg, succeeding his father on the ducal throne. He shared in the war of 1799, and received by the treaty of Luneville as a compensation some territories on the left bank of the Rhine, containing twelve thousand inhabitants, and was allowed to assume the electoral dignity. In 1805 he took part with France in the war against Austria; in return for which he was made king, with sovereign power, and received an addition to his territory which gave him two hundred thousand new subjects. As soon as the German Empire was dissolved, the new king became a member of the Confederation of the Rhine, and, as such, took part in all the wars of France, except that with Spain. Subsequently to the last war between France and Austria, in 1809, the population of the kingdom was increased to one million three hundred and fifty thousand. After the downfall of the French Empire, the king secured all his acquisitions by joining the allies. Since 1815, Würtemberg, though a small kingdom, has formed one of the largest states of the Germanic Confederacy. Frederic I. was a tyrant, and that to a degree which is rare at the present time; yet, like many other tyrants, he was a man of talent, and judiciously promoted the good of his subjects, where it was in accordance with his own objects. His first wife was a princess of Brunswick-Wolfenbüttel, who bore him two sons,—William, his successor, and Paul, and a daughter, Catherine, afterward Princess of Montfort. His second wife was Charlotte Matilda, daughter of George III., King of England. Frederic I. died in 1816.

William I. succeeded his father, and the country prospered under his rule. His son, the crown prince, married the Grand Duchess Olga of Russia. Charles I., the present king, succeeded to the throne in 1864.

Frederic Augustus I. of Saxony was the eldest son of the Elector Frederic Christian. In 1791 he refused to accept the crown of Poland, offered him in the name of that country. He also rejected the instances of a conference of the Emperor Leopold II. and Frederic William II. of Prussia, held at Pillnitz, in 1791, to join as an independent sovereign the first coalition against the French Revolution, though he did not withhold his contingent as a member of the German Empire when the war had been declared. In 1796 he took part in the treaty of peace and neutrality concluded with the French Republic by the district of Upper Saxony. He maintained his neutrality during the war of 1805, but in the following year joined Prussia in the unhappy contest decided by the battle of Jena. Saxony, which fell into the hands of the French conqueror, was severely punished, and Frederic Augustus was finally compelled to throw himself into the arms of Napoleon. Having concluded the treaty of Posen, in 1806, he assumed the title of king, and joined the Rhenish Confederation. For the cession of several districts of Western Saxony, annexed to the new kingdom of Westphalia, he was scantily compensated by a part of Lusatia, and after the Peace of Tilsit more liberally by the duchy of Warsaw. He was a faithful vassal of the French Emperor during the wars of 1809 against Austria, and of 1812 against Russia, and in 1813, when Saxony became the chief scene of the conflict. Having personally joined Napoleon shortly before the battle of Leipsic, he was declared after its bloody issue a prisoner of war by the Emperor Alexander, was sent to Berlin, and afterwards to the château of Friedrichsfeld, but was subsequently allowed to reside at Presburg during the deliberations of the congress of Vienna. That congress restored to him half of his German possessions, the other half being annexed to Prussia, and the duchy of Warsaw was made a dependence of Russia as the kingdom of Poland. Returning to his capital in June, 1815, Frederic Augustus spent the last twelve years of his life in healing the wounds of his diminished country, by promoting its agricultural, commercial, and mining interests, by establishing or developing institutions of art and science, and particularly by a strict administration of justice. His grateful subjects bestowed upon him the surname of the Just. He died in 1827, and his brother Anthony succeeded him.

Frederic Augustus II. was the eldest son of Maximilian, brother of King Frederic Augustus I. and Anthony. Having lost his mother, Carolina Maria Theresa, Princess of Parma, at the age of seven, he was educated principally under the care of Forell, a distinguished Swiss, and General Watzdorf. Though often compelled to leave the capital

of his uncle during the later campaigns of Napoleon in Germany, and frequently to change his abode, he eagerly pursued his studies, which included political economy, law, and military science. Botany, however, became his favorite pursuit. When, in September, 1830, in consequence of the revolutionary movement in Paris, Dresden became the scene of political commotions, Frederic Augustus was placed by the old king, Anthony, at the head of the committee for public tranquillity. As the prince was very popular, this measure greatly contributed to quiet the agitation. On June 6, 1836, Frederic Augustus succeeded to the throne.

Frederic William, Duke of Brunswick, brother-in-law of George IV. of England, entered the Prussian service at an early age, and was actively engaged with the army during the war with France in 1792, and again in 1806, and was taken prisoner with Blücher at Leipsic. On the death of his father (who was killed in the battle of Jena) and his elder brother, he would have succeeded to the dukedom, as his other brothers were incapacitated by disease for reigning, had not Napoleon put a veto on his accession to power. Being resolved to take part in the war against the French, he raised a free corps in Bohemia, and threw himself into Saxony, which, however, he was speedily compelled to evacuate.

After the total defeat of the Austrians, in 1809, the duke determined to leave Germany; and with his corps of seven hundred "black hussars" and eight hundred infantry, he began his masterly retreat. After various skirmishes, in one of which he defeated the Westphalian commander Wellington and a picked detachment of troops, he reached Brunswick, in the neighborhood of which he gained a victory over four thousand Westphalians, commanded by General Reupel. He next crossed the Weser, and having reached Elsfleth, and taken possession of a sufficient number of vessels and seamen, he embarked his troops, and finally landed in England with his men, in August, 1809. He was received with enthusiasm, and, having entered the English service with his men, subsequently took part in the Peninsular war, where he served with distinction, receiving from the British government an allowance of six thousand pounds a year, which he retained till he returned to his own dominions, in 1813. Although no prince could be more earnestly bent on securing the welfare of his subjects, his efforts failed utterly, from the untimely and injudicious nature of the reforms he endeavored to effect; while the magnitude of his military establishments, which were quite unsuited to the limited extent of his territories, excited the ill will of his people. He joined

the allied army with his hussars after the return of Napoleon from Elba, and fell while leading on his men at Quatre Bras, on the 16th of June, 1815.

Brunswick-Lüneburg, the duchy of Bremen, and several other countries became the kingdom of Hanover in 1815. The death of William IV. separated Hanover from England, as Victoria was excluded from the Hanoverian sovereignty by virtue of the limitation of the crown to heirs male. Her uncle, Ernest, Duke of Cumberland, therefore succeeded to the throne, in 1837.

Frederic VI. of Denmark, son of Christian VII. and Caroline Matilda, sister of George III. of England, assumed the regency of the kingdom in 1784, on account of the insanity of his father, on whose death, in 1808, he ascended the throne. In his reign feudal serfdom was abolished, monopolies were abrogated, the criminal code was amended, and the slave-trade prohibited earlier than in any other country. In 1800, Denmark joined the confederation formed between Russia, Sweden, and Prussia, which led to retaliation on the part of England, to the seizure by that power of all Danish vessels in British ports, and to the dispatch of a powerful fleet, under Sir Hyde Parker and Nelson, to give efficacy to the peremptory demand that Frederic should withdraw from the convention. His refusal to accede to this demand was followed by a fierce naval engagement, in which the Danish fleet was almost wholly destroyed. A peace was concluded on Frederic's withdrawal from the confederation; but in consequence of his persisting to maintain an attitude of neutrality, instead of combining with Great Britain against Napoleon, the war was renewed in 1807, by the appearance, before Copenhagen, of a British fleet, bearing envoys, who summoned Frederic to enter into an alliance with England, and to surrender his fleet and arsenals, with the castle of Cronborg, commanding the Sound. On his refusal, Copenhagen was bombarded for three days, the arsenals and docks were destroyed, and all the shipping disabled, sunk, or carried to England. This blow paralyzed the national resources, and it required the exercise of much discretion on the part of the government, and great endurance on that of the people, to prevent the irremediable ruin of the country. Smarting under the treatment which he had experienced from the English, the Danish monarch became the ally of Napoleon, and suffered proportionally after the overthrow of his empire. In 1814, Norway was taken by the allies and given to Sweden. At the general congress of the allied powers, which assembled in Vienna in 1815, Frederic VI. was present, and subscribed to the incorporation of the duchy of Holstein into the

Germanic Confederation. Of Schleswig not a word was spoken, it being considered an inseparable part of Denmark. The kingdom became bankrupt, and many years passed before order could be restored to the finances. Notwithstanding his autocratic tendencies, Frederic so far yielded to the movements of the times as to give his subjects, in 1831, a representative council and a liberal constitution. Frederic VI. died in 1839, aged seventy-two. Twelve peasants from the county of Copenhagen asked permission to bear the royal coffin, on which was written "The memory of the just is blessed." Having no sons, he was succeeded by his cousin Christian Frederic, who took the title of Christian VIII.

Christian VIII. was considered one of the most enlightened monarchs of Europe. Although he did not give his people all the freedom they expected, yet he reformed the laws, encouraged commerce, and science and the arts were munificently patronized by him. He married Caroline Amalie, a princess of Augustenburg, and sister of the rebellious duke who involved Denmark in the terrible war with the duchies of Schleswig and Holstein. Christian died in 1848, and the crown devolved upon his only son.

Frederic VII. came to the throne when all Europe was in a ferment. The principal events of his reign were the wars and the diplomatic negotiations arising out of the revolt of the duchies. Notwithstanding the heavy expenses of the war, the finances were considerably augmented and the material prosperity of the country increased during his reign. Frederic died in 1863, leaving no children.

Christian IX. succeeded to the throne in accordance with a treaty to which Great Britain, France, Austria, and Russia were parties, and which was signed in 1852. This treaty was framed avowedly to secure the integrity of the Danish dominions, and to avoid all difficulties as to the succession, Frederic leaving no direct heir, and there being more than one collateral claimant. Russia, which was one, resigned; the Duke of Augustenburg, another claimant, sold his claim for a sum of rather more than four hundred thousand pounds sterling; and the succession settled upon the loyal Prince Christian, of the Sonderburg-Glücksburg line, upon whom, in 1853, according to a law passed in the diet and subscribed to by the king himself, the title of *Prince of Denmark* was conferred, his civil list being fixed at an amount of fifty thousand rix-dollars annually. The reason of setting aside the succession of the Augustenburg line was, that the duke had forfeited his estates by his rebellion, and fled the country. The accession of Christian was hailed with enthusiasm by his Danish subjects and by a large

majority of the inhabitants of Schleswig, and the new monarch lost no time in promising to them faithfully to uphold the constitution and to guard their liberties. Christian appeared in some respects to have a greater moral strength than his predecessor; he had been popular as the destined heir; his eldest daughter had been married to the Prince of Wales; his second son had accepted the crown of Greece; and he was on excellent terms with Sweden and Russia. But, with all this apparent good fortune, his reign commenced in the midst of lamentable difficulties. The Prince of Augustenburg, Frederic VIII., as he styled himself, instantly claimed the duchies, on the plea that his father, who was still living, had no power to convey his rights; and this claim was at once supported by the King of Bavaria and some of the smaller German states. At length Prussia and Austria interfered, and Denmark being too feeble to offer an effective resistance, after some gallant fighting, she was forced to conclude a treaty at Vienna, in 1864, by which Schleswig, Holstein, and Lauenburg were all made over to Prussia and Austria. Since then the Danes have been employed in adapting their constitution to their altered circumstances. When the new Rigsdag met, in 1866, the address of the king, on opening the session, expressed a hope that, assembling for the first time since the definitive solution of the constitutional question, their labors would produce rich fruits for Denmark. He announced the marriage of the Princess Dagmar with the Crown Prince of Russia; that Prussia had engaged, by the Peace of Prague, to restore Northern Schleswig to Denmark, should the population express a wish to that effect by a vote freely taken; but adds, "this clause has not yet been executed;" and he then called their attention to the finances, the army, and the navy.

Charles XIV., King of Sweden and Norway, originally Jean Baptiste Jules Bernadotte, was born at Pau, in the south of France. He was the son of a lawyer. He married Eugenia Bernhardina Desideria, daughter of a rich merchant in Marseilles, by whom he had one son, the talented Oscar. Bernadotte entered the French army as a common soldier; became an ardent partisan of the revolution; distinguished himself greatly in the wars of Napoleon, and soon attained the highest military rank. But he was distrusted by Bonaparte, whose ambitious schemes he took no part in promoting; and Napoleon having taken offense at his conduct after the battle of Wagram, Bernadotte left the army in disgust, and returned to Paris. He was afterwards sent by the ministerial council to oppose the British, who had landed at Walcheren, but the breach between him and the Emperor grew wider. In 1810 he was elected crown prince and heir to the throne

of Sweden by the states of that kingdom, and the agreement of Charles XIII., who had no children. Almost the only condition imposed on him was that of joining the Protestant Church. He changed his name to Charles John, and, the health of the Swedish king failing in the following year, the reins of government came almost entirely into his hands. He refused to comply with the demands of Napoleon, which were opposed to the interests of Sweden, particularly as to trade with Britain, and was soon involved in war with him. He commanded the army of the allies in the north of Germany, and defeated Oudinot at Grossbeeren, and Ney at Dennewitz. He showed great reluctance, however, to join in the invasion of France, and was tardy in his progress southward. Charles XIII. died in February, 1818, and in May of the same year Bernadotte was solemnly crowned King of Sweden and Norway, under the title of Charles XIV. His personal influence, due alike to his diplomatic wisdom, his virtues, and his eminent military talents, became of the utmost importance to Sweden. During the twenty-six years of his wise administration, all differences with foreign nations were settled, public and private credit was restored, and ample provision made for the payment of the public debt. When ascending the throne he adopted the motto, "The love of my people is my reward," and he fully realized it. Education, agriculture, manufactures, commerce, and great public works, as well as the military strength of the kingdom, were promoted by his care. He died in 1844, and was succeeded by his son Oscar.

Oscar I., the only child of Charles XIV., was born at Paris in 1799. After his father was elected Crown Prince of Sweden, Oscar was placed under the tutelage of the poet Atterbom for the purpose of acquiring the Swedish language. In 1818 he entered the University of Upsala, where his education was completed. The effects of the thorough training he received were seen in his remarkable proficiency in science, literature, and especially the fine arts. In 1823 he married Josephine Beauharnais, the granddaughter of the Empress Josephine, by whom he had five children. After Oscar's admission to a share in the administration, being thoroughly imbued with the national sentiments, he vigorously opposed, though with becoming filial respect, the pro-Russian policy of his father. This course of conduct rendered him immensely popular, and his accession to the throne was hailed with rapture by the great majority of his subjects. His rule was distinguished for its liberality and justice; and introducing changes with caution and gentleness, he had the gratification of seeing, in most cases, his prudence crowned with success. During the Crimean war

he joined the King of Denmark in a declaration of armed neutrality. His attitude at this time gained him general favor throughout Europe. On account of his failing health, in 1857, his eldest son was appointed regent, and succeeded to the throne as Charles XV. on the death of Oscar, in 1859.

Charles XV. died in 1872, and was succeeded by his brother, Oscar Frederic, the present king.

William I. (William Frederic of Orange), *King of the Netherlands*, and Grand Duke of Luxemburg, was born in 1772. His father, William V., Prince of Orange and Nassau, hereditary Stadholder, who died at Brunswick in 1806, was descended from John, the youngest brother of the great William I. of Orange; his mother was a princess of Prussia. In 1788, Prince William Frederic of Orange made a tour in Germany, and remained for some time in Berlin at the court of his uncle, Frederic William II. In 1790 he entered the University of Leyden. In 1791 he married Frederica Louisa Wilhelmina, sister of Frederic William III. He then undertook many improvements in the army, but met with much opposition from the patriots, who had been put down in 1787 by the help of Prussian troops. Many of the patriots fled to France; and in 1793 the National Convention declared war against the Stadholder, and conquered him. In 1806, Napoleon erected the Batavian Republic, the name given to the Netherlands after its conquest in 1794-5, into the kingdom of Holland, and placed his brother Louis on the throne. Louis ruled with moderation and kindness; but his preference of the interests of Holland to those of France gave such offense to his imperial brother that in 1810 Louis abdicated, and Holland was incorporated as an integral part of the French Empire. On the downfall of Napoleon, the Prince of Orange, who had been an exile in England, was declared king by an assembly of notables, under the title of William I., with a constitution limiting his power within moderate bounds. The ten ancient provinces which had remained under Spanish rule at the time of the great revolution of the sixteenth century, and had subsequently belonged to the House of Austria, were annexed to Holland by the congress of Vienna, with the object of forming a power of sufficient force to serve as a check to the progress of France towards the northeast.

The differences of race, religion, language, and manners, however, prevented the assimilation of the two sections into one nation; and on the outbreak of the French revolution in 1830 the ten southern provinces revolted, and, aided by the French, established their independence as the kingdom of Belgium, with Leopold of Saxe-Coburg

as king. Since this separation, Holland has continued flourishing and peaceful, and has made rapid advances in prosperity and opulence. William I. abdicated in 1840 in favor of his son, William II., who died in 1849, and was succeeded by William III., the present king, who married the Princess Sophia Matilda of Würtemberg.

Leopold I., King of Belgium, was born in Coburg in 1790. He was a son of Duke Francis of Saxe-Coburg-Saalfeld, received a brilliant education, entered the military service of Russia, and in 1808 accompanied the Emperor Alexander I. to Erfurt, with the rank of general. Compelled by the influence of Napoleon, in 1810, to relinquish his position in the army of the Czar, he devoted himself to the interests of Saxe-Coburg. The principal public achievement under his administration was the boundary treaty, concluded with Bavaria in 1811.

In 1813 he rejoined the Emperor Alexander, and took an active part in the battles of Lützen, Bautzen, Leipsic, and Culm. In 1814 he accompanied the allied sovereigns to England, where he made the acquaintance of the Princess Charlotte, whom he married in 1816, but who died the following year. On the occasion of his marriage, Leopold was raised by his father-in-law, George IV., to the rank of a British field-marshall, became a member of the privy council, was created Duke of Kendal, and a pension of fifty thousand pounds was conferred upon him. After the death of his wife he resided in London, and in his palace of Claremont.

In 1830 the crown of Greece was offered to him, which he finally refused, after having accepted it on conditions which were not complied with.

In 1831 he was elected King of the Belgians, and was crowned in July of the same year. In 1832 he married the Princess Louise, the accomplished daughter of Louis Philippe, King of France. She bore him three children,—Leopold Louis Philippe, Duke of Brabant; Philip Eugene, Count of Flanders; and Marie Charlotte, who in 1859 was married to Maximilian, Archduke of Austria, and subsequently Emperor of Mexico.

The revolutionary tempest of 1848 menaced the tranquillity of the country; but King Leopold, at the outbreak of the catastrophe in France, promptly declared himself ready to retain or surrender the crown of Belgium, according to the decision of the people. This frank and ready declaration had a successful result in strengthening the party of order, while it disarmed even those most disaffected to the crown. In 1853 his eldest son, Leopold, married Marie, Archduchess of Austria; and in 1867 his second son, Philip, married Princess

Marie of Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen. King Leopold I. died in 1865, and was succeeded by the present king, Leopold II., who, on taking the oath, indorsed the principles of the Belgian constitution.

Victor Amadeus III., of Sardinia, joined Austria against France in 1792, and was stripped of Savoy and Nice in the same year. He died in 1796.

Charles Emmanuel IV., his son, succeeded him, and in 1797 entered into an alliance with France against Austria; but his territory was nevertheless invaded by the French Directory, which made the complaints of the Sardinian people against the burden of taxes, and the privileges of the nobility, a pretext to compel him to cede all his continental dominions, in 1798, to France. He retained only the island of Sardinia, whither he was obliged to retire with all his family. In 1802 he abdicated in favor of his brother, Victor Emanuel I., and lived as a private individual in Rome, where he died in 1819, having entered the order of Jesuits in 1817. From 1806, Piedmont with Genoa was incorporated in the French Empire.

Victor Emanuel I., after an insignificant reign of twelve years, returned to Turin, in 1818, and, after the downfall of Napoleon, recovered his continental territories. The congress of Vienna was desirous of strengthening the kings of Sardinia, as holders of the passes of the Alps, and England wished to establish a commercial intercourse with the court of Turin, and Genoa was annexed as a duchy to the Sardinian monarchy. Victor Emanuel restored, as far as was practicable, the old constitution, readmitted the Jesuits, subscribed the Holy Alliance, and established a rigorous censorship. In March, 1821, in consequence of the troubles which resulted in the occupation of the country by the Austrians, he abdicated in favor of his brother Charles Felix.

Charles Felix died in 1831, and in his person the elder branch of the House of Savoy became extinct.

Charles Albert, who belonged to the younger branch, that of Savoy-Carignan, and whose claims to the crown had been formally acknowledged by the congress of Vienna, ascended the throne. The liberals had great expectations from him, but were for a long time disappointed; his government much resembled the other Jesuitic and despotic Italian governments, except that he sought to promote the interests of the country, and to restrict the influence of the clergy in political affairs.

The Holy Alliance was a league formed by the Emperors Alexander I. of Russia, Francis I. of Austria, and Frederic William III. of Prussia, after the second abdication of Napoleon, and acceded to by most of the other powers of Europe, excepting the Holy See and England. Its

ostensible object was to regulate the affairs of the states of Christendom on principles of Christian amity, but the real aim was to maintain the existing dynasties. Alexander himself drew up the agreement and gave to it its name. It was in virtue of the Holy Alliance that Austria, in 1821, suppressed the revolutions in Naples and Piedmont, and that France, in 1823, restored absolutism in Spain. After Alexander's death the compact lost much of its authority, and the French revolution of 1830 may be said to have ended it.

Otho I., King of Greece.—In 1821, an insurrection broke out in Greece, and the war lasted seven years, and was one of the most remarkable struggles recorded in history. Brave men joined the Greeks from Europe and America; contributions of money, provisions, and clothes were forwarded; eloquent voices—those of Webster, Clay, and Everett, in America—were raised for them; Byron joined them; and the Hellenic cause, the cause of Christianity, of nationality, and of justice, finally triumphed. The battle of Navarino, in 1827, in which the combined squadrons of England, France, and Russia annihilated the Turco-Egyptian fleet, was the decisive event; and notwithstanding his obstinate perseverance, the Sultan Mahmoud II. was obliged to come to terms. In 1829, hostilities ceased, and the great powers of Europe occupied themselves with the settlement of Greece. They selected Prince Leopold of Saxe-Coburg as sovereign of the emancipated state; he at first accepted the offer, but, owing to a difference on the question of boundaries, abdicated the unoccupied throne four months afterwards, and in 1831 was elected King of Belgium. The great powers, after Leopold's abdication of the Grecian throne, fixed upon Otho, the second son of King Louis I. of Bavaria, a prince then (1832) only seventeen years old. He assumed the government, under the direction of a regency, and arrived at Nauplia in 1833. The seat of government was first established at Nauplia; but in 1835 it was transferred to Athens, where Otho, after his marriage with the Princess Amalia of Oldenburg, took up his residence and established his court. After attaining his majority the king governed in his own name, by ministers responsible to himself, aided by a council of state.

THE MOST NOTED BROTHERS OF THE EMPEROR FRANCIS II. OF GERMANY (FRANCIS I. OF AUSTRIA).

Ferdinand III., Grand Duke of Tuscany, and Archduke of Austria, was born at Florence in 1769. In 1790 he succeeded his father, Leopold II., in the government of Tuscany, when the latter obtained the imperial throne at the death of his brother, the Emperor Joseph II.

Ferdinand's rule in Tuscany was one of combined mildness and ability, and during his reign were inaugurated many judicial, economical, and legislative reforms. Commerce was protected and encouraged, hospitals and asylums were founded, good roads opened through the state, and the greatest attention bestowed on the welfare of his subjects which an enlightened and good prince could exercise. A lover of peaceful progress, he remained strictly neutral in the first coalition against France, and was the first sovereign in Europe to recognize and treat diplomatically with the French Republic, in 1792. In 1793, intimidated by the combined menaces of the Russian and British cabinets, Ferdinand was constrained to relinquish his neutral policy, and became a passive member of the coalition formed by the above governments against France. In 1795, on the French occupation of Piedmont, he speedily reassumed friendly relations with France. In 1797, in order to save his states from annexation to the Cisalpine Republic, he concluded a treaty with Bonaparte on the most unfavorable terms, undertaking to pay a war levy to France, and to transfer to the museum of Paris some of the chief masterpieces of the Florentine galleries, including the "Venus de Medici." Owing to the continued intrigues of France in his states, Ferdinand was forced to seek an Austrian alliance, which furnished Bonaparte with a pretext for declaring war simultaneously against Austria and Tuscany. In 1799, Ferdinand retired to Vienna, leaving the French troops in occupation of Tuscany. In 1801, at the Peace of Lunéville, he was forced to renounce all claim on Tuscany. In 1814, the Peace of Paris reinstated him in Tuscany, and even restored his artistic treasures. He died in 1824, leaving his states to his son, Leopold II.

Charles, Archduke and Generalissimo of Austria, Duke of Teschen, third son of the Emperor Leopold II., was born in Florence in 1771. Of weak constitution and sickly, he seemed to promise little, but was soon attracted by military subjects, and became fond of geometry and other serious studies. He was twenty years of age at the time of the first war of the Emperor Francis, his brother, against France. Under Hohenlohe he took part in the battle of Jemmapes against Dumouriez, and then commanded the van of the Prince of Coburg, when he distinguished himself in the engagements of Aldenhoven and Neerwinden, in which the French were defeated. Belgium having been reconquered, he was appointed its governor-general in 1793. In 1794 he had a part of the Austrian command, in the battles of Landrecy, Tournay, Courtray, and Fleurus, against the victorious army of Pichegru. When the Netherlands were lost, he retired for some time to

Vienna to restore his impaired health. In 1796 he took the field again, as field-marshal of the empire and commander-in-chief of the Austrian army on the Rhine, and his victories over Jourdan, at Neumarkt, Teining, and Amberg, soon compelled Moreau, who had advanced as far as Munich, to undertake his famous retreat; the French were driven over the Rhine, and retained in their possession only the bridges of Hüningen and Kehl. Both these positions Charles attacked and took in the following winter. But while things were going on successfully in Germany under his command, the French, under Bonaparte, were everywhere victorious in Italy, and were rapidly advancing toward the heart of Austria; and when Charles was sent there to check their progress, the victorious young general, imitating the words of Cæsar, could say, "Hitherto I have had to combat armies without a commander; now I have to combat a commander without an army." Charles was compelled to conclude the preliminary treaty of Loben in 1797, which was soon followed by the Peace of Campo Formio. The impaired state of his health forced him to quit the field in 1800, when he was elected Governor-General of Bohemia. But he had soon to hasten to the defense of the empire of his brother, which, by the admirable marches of Napoleon over the Alps, and of Moreau through Germany, was brought to the brink of ruin. The armistice of Steyer concluded by him with the latter was the preliminary of the Peace of Luneville, in 1801. His great services were now recognized by his appointment as president of the aulic council of war at Vienna, as well as by a proposition made at the diet of the German Empire to reward him with a statue, and the title of Savior of Germany; which honors, however, he refused to accept. In 1805 he commanded the Austrian army in Italy against Massena, but his victory at Caldiero was of little avail, as Napoleon, after the surrender of Ulm, was rapidly advancing toward Vienna. The hasty retreat of the Archduke Ferdinand to Bohemia, and the battle of Austerlitz, compelled Francis to conclude the Peace of Presburg. Charles was now made generalissimo of all the Austrian armies, and minister of war, with unlimited power, which he used for the reorganization of the forces of the empire and the creation of a strong reserve and militia. In 1808, after the abdication of Charles IV., King of Spain, the provinces of Catalonia and Aragon called him to the throne of Spain and India, and an English frigate was sent to carry him from Trieste, but was sent back with his thanks. In the war of 1809 he commanded in Bavaria, while his brothers John and Ferdinand led the armies in Italy and Poland. Charles advanced as far as Ratisbon, but Napoleon's victories at Thann, Abensburg,

Landshut, Eckmühl, and Ratisbon compelled him to retreat. Having, however, received reinforcements, he defeated Napoleon in the battle of Aspern and Essling, thus shaking the belief in the invincibility of the modern Cæsar. This victory brought little more than glory; the great battle of Wagram decided against Charles, though commenced victoriously by the Austrians. He retreated in the best order and continually fighting to Znaym. An armistice, however, followed soon after by the Peace of Schönbrunn, put an end to the bloody campaign. Charles was wounded, and feeling at the same time personally mortified, he laid down his military command, resigning all his offices, and retired to Teschen, whence he afterwards went to Vienna. After the return of Napoleon from Elba, he again served for a short time as Governor of Mayence; but this was the last act of his public life. He married, in 1815, Henrietta, Princess of Nassau-Weilberg, and became the father of a numerous and prosperous family, among whom he lived in quiet retirement, enjoying the honors and distinctions due to his great merits as a military commander, and a high reputation for modesty, frankness, and accomplishments. His two works, "Principles of Strategy," and "History of the Campaign of 1799 in Germany and Switzerland," are highly esteemed in military literature. He died in 1847.

John, Archduke of Austria, and Vicar of Germany, was born in Florence in 1782. Without having had any opportunity of acquiring practical military knowledge, the Emperor Francis, his brother, appointed him, in 1800, to take the command-in-chief of the Austrian army, and he was defeated by the French under Moreau, at Hohenlin-den. After the Peace of Luneville he became director-in-chief of the department of fortification and engineering, and of the chief military academies of the empire. He frequently visited the Tyrol, where he became very popular. He took the place of his brother, the Archduke Charles, as president of the council of war and as minister of war from 1803 to 1805, when he was invested with the command of the army in the Tyrol, but was not able to preserve that country for Austria. In 1809 he planned, through Hormayr, a Tyrolese patriot, the rising of the Tyrolese, and commanded the army which was to operate in the Tyrol and Italy. While Chasteler, acting under his orders, and assisted by Andreas Hofer, Josef Speckbacher, and the Capuchin priest Joachim Haspinger, succeeded in conquering the Tyrol, the Archduke John achieved several victories in Italy over the Viceroy Eugene Beauharnais. On hearing of the critical condition of Vienna, he effected his retreat; but while on his way to rescue the capital, he was defeated on

the Piave, and, having retreated as far as Hungary, met with a still more disastrous defeat at Raab. In July, 1809, he was summoned to the assistance of the Archduke Charles at Wagram, but was not able to effect a junction with his army. He relinquished his command after the Peace of Vienna, and, with the exception of the siege of Hüningen, took no part in the campaigns of 1813-15. He was not permitted to go to the Tyrol, his popularity there rendering him an object of suspicion to the court. He resided many years chiefly in Grätz, which city he had already benefited, in 1811, by the foundation of the Johanneum gymnasium, and which is indebted to him for many other public institutions. In 1827, while traveling in Styria, he became acquainted with Anna Plochel, whose father was postmaster at Aussee. He contracted a morganatic marriage with her, after which she was raised to the rank of Baroness of Brandhof and Countess of Meran. John lived for many years in retirement, devoted to scientific and industrial pursuits, but his popular personal qualities created for him a reputation beyond the mountains of the Tyrol and Styria; and in 1848, on the adoption of a provisional government by the Frankfort parliament, he was chosen vicar of the empire (*Reichsverweser*). Shortly before, after the downfall of Metternich and the subsequent flight of his nephew, the Emperor Ferdinand, to Innspruck, he had been appointed by the latter to take the reins of government at Vienna. The archduke preferred, however, to devote himself to the management of affairs at Frankfort; but although showing much disposition to accept the responsibilities of a constitutional ruler, he was chiefly engaged in preventing a preponderance of Russia at the expense of Austria. After the adoption of the resolution of March, 1849, which nominated the King of Prussia Emperor of Germany, he was with difficulty prevented from resigning his office; after the withdrawal of the Gagern administration, in May of the same year, he appointed Grävell, Jochmus, Detmold, and Merck as his ministers, who were all (with the exception of Grävell, who soon retired) partisans of Austria, while the archduke himself virtually ceased to occupy any other position than that of a guardian of the interests of the Austrian dynasty. His term of office expired in December, 1849, after which he returned to Styria, leaving the reputation of a prince whose attachment to the House of Hapsburg was stronger than his sympathies with the welfare of the German people. He died at Grätz, the capital of Styria, in 1859. He had one son, Francis, Count of Meran.

DISTINGUISHED PERSONS.

Clemens Wenzel Nepomuk Lothar, Prince Metternich, an Austrian statesman, was born in Coblenz in 1773. His ancestors had held a high position since the seventeenth century, members of the family having repeatedly filled the archbishoprics of Treves and Mayence, and possessing the largest interest in livings and stalls connected with all the German sees and in the election of bishops. He continued the career of his father, who had obtained some reputation as a diplomatist, and, as the associate of Kaunitz, studied at Strasburg, where he had for his fellow-student Benjamin Constant, and made his first public appearance as master of ceremonies at the coronation of the Emperor Leopold II., in 1790. Subsequently he spent some time in Mayence in the study of jurisprudence, made a journey to England, became Austrian ambassador at the Hague, and married, in 1795, the granddaughter and heiress of Kaunitz, whose large domains, added to his own patrimony, which included extensive estates in Bohemia, Moravia, on Lake Constance, and on the Rhine, gave him a prominent position among the wealthiest landholders in Germany, and, in connection with his high rank, varied attainments, and accomplishments, led to his rapid advancement. He first came into prominent notice at the congress of Rastadt, in 1797-99, as the representative of the Westphalian nobility; after which he accompanied Count Stadion to St. Petersburg, and subsequently officiated as ambassador in Dresden, in 1801. As early as 1804 he had already obtained the reputation of the most refined of the Austrian diplomats, and was sent to Berlin in order to prevail upon the King of Prussia to join the new coalition against Napoleon. In 1806 he was selected for the mission at the court of the Tuileries. The French Emperor received him with the remark, "You are very young to represent so powerful a monarchy." "Your majesty was not older at Austerlitz," replied Metternich. The importance to which he rose in public affairs was afterwards very salutary for Austria, for to him indisputably belongs the glory, if it be a glory, of being in some measure a match for Talleyrand. In 1807 he concluded at Fontainebleau the convention by which Braunau was restored to Austria and the Isonzo River made the boundary of Italy. In 1809, on the outbreak of the war between Austria and France, Metternich had some difficulty in obtaining his passports, and was not enabled to leave until shortly before the battle of Wagram. He joined the Emperor Francis in Hungary, and was appointed to succeed Count Stadion as minister of foreign affairs. In 1810 he conducted the negotiations with Cham-

pigny in regard to the marriage of the French Emperor with the Austrian archduchess, and subsequently conducted Maria Louisa to Paris. Metternich, however, never ceased to watch the ambitious designs of Napoleon, and kept himself in constant communication with the English and Russian governments. Napoleon, smarting under his great reverses in Russia, and embittered by what he called the intrigues of Metternich and Stadion, openly accused the former, in his interview with him in Dresden in 1813, of conspiring against him, while professing to conclude with him a treaty of peace; he even went so far as to ask him how much he had received from England for his treacherous conduct, at which remark Metternich grew pale. In the excitement of the conversation, Napoleon dropped his hat, but he was compelled to pick it up himself, Metternich passing it several times in walking up and down the room without noticing it, as he would have done on any other occasion. Napoleon, however, immediately repented having forgotten himself in so inexcusable a manner towards the representative of his father-in-law, and of having mortally offended this Jesuitical courtier.

Metternich, on the other hand, entirely succeeded in his object, and on the night of the very same day when he made his hypocritical proposals of peace to Napoleon, a formal treaty was concluded at Reichenbach, signed by Stadion, Nesselrode, and Hardenberg, by which Austria engaged to declare war against France in case the conditions which were to be proposed at Prague should not be accepted. This treaty was for a long time kept secret. The formal declaration of war by Austria against France was drawn up by Metternich's order, and the quadruple alliance was concluded by him at Töplitz. Metternich's great influence in this war soon became apparent. The Kings of Bavaria and Würtemberg were induced to forsake Napoleon by a secret provision, made through Metternich, that they should be protected against popular disturbances, and should receive additional possessions. Metternich was rewarded by the Austrian Emperor for his zeal by the hereditary dignity of a prince of the empire, which was conferred on him on the eve of the memorable battle of Leipsic. He took a leading part in all subsequent conferences and treaties. To Napoleon's proposal of an armistice in 1814, which he dictated to La Besnardière in a special letter to Metternich, the Austrian minister replied that "he was convinced it would not lead to anything." Napoleon ridiculed this letter, and said, "Metternich fancies he controls the destinies of Europe, while he is under the control of all the other powers." When the congress

of Vienna was opened, he was unanimously chosen to preside over its deliberations; and from that time until the revolution of 1848 he exercised a remarkable ascendancy over the affairs of Austria and Europe. Metternich was strenuously opposed to the French revolution of 1830. Being at Carlsbad with Count Nesselrode when the news of it reached him, he remarked to the French ambassador to Vienna, "The Emperor holds in entire abhorrence that which has just taken place in France. His profound conviction is that the present order of things cannot last." After the death of the Emperor Francis, in 1835, Metternich remained in possession of his office as chancellor and prime minister, and accompanied the new Emperor Ferdinand to Töplitz and Prague, where an interview took place between that monarch and the monarchs of Russia and Prussia. In 1840 and 1841, during the complication of the Oriental question, he exerted his influence in favor of the maintenance of peace abroad, while at home, by his iron rule, he prepared the way for the revolution which terminated his power in March, 1848. Barely escaping with his life from the exasperated people, he fled through Holland to England, where he remained until November, 1849. He next removed to Brussels, and in 1851 the reaction had progressed sufficiently to enable him to return to Vienna. On his way thither, he visited his estate of Johannisberg, which had been presented to him by the Emperor Francis in 1816, but which during the revolutionary movements in Germany in 1848-49 had been taken from his control. While there he received the visit of the King of Prussia, and a similar honor was conferred upon him by the present Emperor of Austria, who visited the faithful servant of his dynasty almost immediately on his arrival in Vienna. Without resuming public office, he continued until his death to exercise great influence in political affairs, and is said to have advised the maintenance of the most absolute rule over the Austrian possessions in Italy. He died about a fortnight before the battle of Solferino. Metternich was fond of letters and art; and in his letters to Alexander von Humboldt, for whom he entertained a high regard and admiration, he remarks that he had missed his vocation, and that his inclination would have led him to the sphere of science rather than to that of diplomacy. Metternich died at Vienna in 1859, aged eighty-six. He left three sons and three daughters.

Charles Maurice de Périgord, Prince de Talleyrand, a distinguished French statesman, was descended from an ancient family, to which, in the Middle Ages, belonged the sovereign counts of Périgord. Previously to the fall of Napoleon he was known as the Prince of Bene-

ventum, but after that event he was styled Prince Talleyrand. He was born in Paris, in 1754, and, being designed for the Church, was displaced at the seminary of Saint Sulpice. The young abbé was distinguished for his wit, his insinuating manners, his talent for business, and his insight into character. At the breaking out of the revolution he was Bishop of Autun, and had already displayed so much acuteness and dexterity in seizing the hidden clue of affairs, that Mirabeau in his secret correspondence with Berlin pronounced him one of the most ingenious and powerful minds of the age. Elected deputy of the clergy of his diocese to the States-General in 1789, he contributed to guide and hasten the change of public opinion, and voted in favor of the union of the clergy with the deputies of the third estate. In the beginning of 1790 he was chosen president of the assembly; he brought forward a plan for applying the Church domains to the public use, and the proposition for establishing a uniform system of weights and measures emanated from him. With the Bishops of Lydda and Babylon the Bishop of Autun consecrated the first constitutional bishops, and was excommunicated by Pope Pius VI. Talleyrand immediately resigned his bishopric, and in 1792 was sent on a secret mission to England, and while the Jacobins denounced him as the agent of the court, the emigrants in England accused him of being the emissary of the Jacobins; and the English ministry ordered him to quit the country within twenty-four hours. He then sailed for the United States, where, through successful speculation, he accumulated a fortune, and carefully studied American institutions. Before the adjournment of the convention, on motion of Chénier, acting under Madame de Staël's influence, his name was erased from the list of emigrants, and he returned to Paris; where, shortly after, he was made minister of foreign affairs. The most important period of his distinguished political career began with the return of Bonaparte from Egypt. When Napoleon assumed the imperial title, Talleyrand was appointed grand chamberlain of the empire, and was raised to the dignity of sovereign prince of Beneventum. Availing himself of his official information of secrets of state, he speculated extensively in the funds, and added largely to his fortune.

Having procured a brief from the Pope releasing him from his clerical vows, he immediately married Mrs. Grant, his mistress, about whom the following story is told. Talleyrand, having one day invited Denon, the celebrated traveler, to dine with him, told his wife to read the work of their guest, indicating its place in his library. Madame de Talleyrand unluckily got hold, by mistake, of the Adventures of Robinson Crusoe, which she ran over in great haste; and at dinner she

began to question Denon about his shipwreck, his island, and finally about his man Friday. Napoleon, in 1807, removed him from the ministry of foreign affairs, but promoted him to the post of vice-grand-elector, which gave him a seat in the public councils. When Napoleon left Paris in 1814, to defend the French soil, he appointed him one of the council of regency. The republican and imperial ex-minister was placed at the head of the provisional government, April 1, 1814, and governed France until the arrival of the Comte d'Artois. The Emperor Alexander lodged at his hotel; and on the 12th of May, Talleyrand was once more named minister of foreign affairs, and in June was raised to the peerage, under the title of Prince de Talleyrand. Napoleon made some unsuccessful attempts to attach him to his cause in the Hundred Days. In 1828 his fortune suffered considerably in the failure of a great Paris house. After the revolution of July, 1830, he was appointed ambassador to England with a princely salary, and succeeded in negotiating a treaty by which France, England, Spain, and Portugal united for the pacification and settlement of the two peninsular kingdoms. Satisfied with this last performance, he resigned his office in 1835, and retired to private life. During his latter years he returned to the observance of ecclesiastical rites, and died reconciled with the Church. The Duke of Wellington, speaking of Talleyrand in the British House of Lords, said that "none of the great measures which had been resolved upon at Vienna and Paris had been concerted or carried on without the intervention of that illustrious person. In all the transactions in which I have been engaged with Prince Talleyrand, no man could have conducted himself with more firmness and ability in regard to his own country, or with more uprightness and honor in all his communications with the ministers of other countries, than Prince Talleyrand. No man's public and private character has ever been so much belied as those of that illustrious individual." Lord Holland added that "no man's private character had been more shamefully traduced, and no man's public character more mistaken and misrepresented, than the private and public character of Prince Talleyrand." While Napoleon possessed the genius of victory, Talleyrand possessed the genius of politics; and both together were able to bridle and annihilate the revolution. Engaging without danger in all the catastrophes which occurred, hovering unseen over the agitations which he had himself assisted to produce, variable as fortune herself, he seemed to be the master of ceremonies to the revolutions which followed one another in France with such rapidity for years. Talleyrand died at Paris in 1838, aged

eighty-four. In his will he ordered the memoirs he left to be published thirty years after his death.

Arthur Wellesley, Duke of Wellington, fourth son of the Earl of Mornington, was born in Ireland in 1769. He was sent to school at Eton, and afterwards to the military school of Angers, in France. He entered the army as ensign, and in 1793, by interest and purchase, became lieutenant-colonel in the thirtieth regiment. The next year he went to Ostend, and commanded a brigade in the retreat of the Duke of York through Holland. In 1797 he accompanied his brother, Lord Wellesley, to India, where he distinguished himself in the attack on Tippoo Saib, and at the capture of Seringapatam, and also in the war of the Mahrattas, compelling them to submit to such a peace as the English chose to dictate. For these services he was honored with the order of the Bath, and returned to England in 1805. Shortly after his return he married a lady of the family of Lord Longford, to whom he had been previously engaged. He was soon ordered to the command of a brigade under Lord Cathcart in Hanover, after which he was sent to Ireland as secretary of state. He next accompanied Lord Cathcart in his expedition to Copenhagen. In 1808 he was sent to the Peninsula, where he landed at Mondego, marched towards Lisbon, and fought the battle of Vimieira. Again he returned to Lisbon, and fought back to England; but in 1809 he was sent back to Lisbon with more troops and the commission of commander-in-chief. He marched to Oporto, from which he drove the troops of Napoleon, under Marshal Soult, and, entering Spain, won the battle of Talavera. In 1810, Marshal Massena was sent by Napoleon into Portugal. Wellington opposed him successfully, and then crossed the Tagus to attack Marshal Mortier, who had succeeded Massena, and took Ciudad Rodrigo. For this victory Spain bestowed on him the title of Duke of Ciudad Rodrigo, and the rank of grandee of Spain. After Napoleon's disasters in Russia, Wellington had the whole Spanish army placed under his command. The French army retreated to Burgos, then to Vittoria, where he overtook and defeated them, capturing their baggage and artillery, and taking a great number of prisoners. He was now raised to the rank of field-marshall, and the Spanish government created him Duke of Vittoria. He next besieged Pampeluna and St. Sebastian, and repulsed Soult in several attacks which that general made to relieve those places. Wellington then forced the pass of Bidassoa, and entered France. Soult endeavored to impede his march, and at Toulouse the last battle was fought. Peace followed immediately, and the Bourbons were restored. After an absence of five years, Wellington returned to

London, was created a duke, and received the thanks of both houses of parliament, who voted him a gift of four hundred thousand pounds. In July he was nominated ambassador extraordinary to France, and then sent to the congress of Vienna. While there, Bonaparte escaped from Elba, and Wellington was instantly named by the allied sovereigns generalissimo of all their forces, and fixed his headquarters at Brussels. Hostilities commenced, and Napoleon, after defeating the troops at Ligny, was completely routed at Waterloo by the fortunate arrival of Blücher. Wellington then advanced to Paris, and an end was put to the war under the walls of Paris. The parliament of England now voted him a further sum of two hundred thousand pounds, and the sovereigns of Europe bestowed upon him rewards and honors. In 1826 he was sent to St. Petersburg to congratulate the Emperor Nicholas on his accession to the throne. In 1828 he assumed the premiership, although at the previous session of parliament he had declared his entire unfitness for high civil office. In December, 1830, he was obliged to give way, in turn, to the Whig ministry. His eldest son and heir, Arthur, Marquis of Douro, was born in 1807; and his other son, Charles, in 1808. The Duke of Wellington died in September, 1852, aged eighty-three. Queen Victoria, in her journal, says of him, "One cannot think of this country without 'the Duke,' our immortal hero! In him centred almost every earthly honor a subject could possess. His position was the highest a subject ever had—above party—looked up to by all—revered by the whole nation—the friend of the sovereign; and how simply he carried these honors! His experience and his knowledge of the past were so great, too; he was a link which connected us with by-gone times, with the last century. Not an eye will be dry in the whole country."

Gebhard Leberecht von Blücher, Prince of Wahlstadt, Field-Marshall of Prussia, was born at Rostock, in Mecklenburg-Schwerin, in 1742. At the commencement of the Seven Years' War he joined a regiment of Swedish hussars, and in his first action was taken prisoner by the Prussian hussars, whose colonel persuaded him to exchange out of the service of Sweden into that of Prussia, and gave him a lieutenancy. A lieutenant Jägersfeld having been promoted over Blücher's head, he immediately wrote to Frederic the Great as follows, "Von Jägersfeld, who has no merit except that of being the son of the Markgraf of Schwedt, has been put over my head; I beg to request my discharge." The result was that Blücher was put under arrest, and after repeated applications for discharge, he received from Frederic the curt intimation, "Captain Blücher is at liberty to go to the devil!" Blücher

went instead to his estate of Grossradow, in Pomerania, and devoted himself to farming; but he soon tired of a bucolic life. In 1793, having returned to the army, he fought as colonel of hussars against the French on the Rhine, evincing great genius as leader of cavalry. The breaking out of the war, in 1806, led him, as lieutenant-general, to the battle of Auerstadt. Blücher, with the greater part of the cavalry, occupied the left flank of the Prince of Hohenlohe in the retreat to Pomerania. He is accused on this occasion of not giving the prince due support, and thus leading to the capitulation at Prenzlau. Blücher then marched into the territory of the free town of Lübeck, and hastily fortified the city; but the French took it by storm, and he was forced to surrender at Ratkow, near Lübeck, whither he had escaped with a few troops. A fortnight after he was exchanged for the French general Victor; and immediately on his arrival at Königsberg, he was sent, at the head of a corps, by sea, to Swedish Pomerania, to assist in the defense of Stralsund. After the Peace of Tilsit, he was employed in the war department in Königsberg and Berlin, and subsequently became commander in Pomerania. At a later period he was pensioned, along with several men of note, at the instance, it was said, of Napoleon. He was one of the few to combat the general belief in the invincibility of Napoleon, which had grown into a sort of fatalism in high places. In common with Stein and Hardenberg, he labored to remove all weak and unpatriotic counselors from the person of the king. When all the leaders of the army lost courage, his constancy revived confidence and made him the centre of all hope for the future. When the Prussians at last rose in opposition to France, Blücher was appointed to the chief command of the Prussians and of General Wintzingerode's Russian corps. At the battles of Lützen, Bautzen, and Haynau he displayed heroic courage. At the Katzbach he defeated Marshal Macdonald, and cleared Silesia of the enemy.

In vain did Napoleon himself attempt to stop the "old captain of hussars," as he called him, in his victorious career. In the battle of Leipsic he won great advantage over Marshal Marmont, at Möckern, October, 1813, and on the same day pressed on to the suburbs of Leipsic. On the 18th, in conjunction with the Crown Prince of Sweden (Bernadotte), he had a great share in the defeat of the French, and on the 19th his troops were the first to enter Leipsic. Blücher, in opposition to the policy of Austria, continually pressed the taking of Paris as the real aim of the war. On the 1st of January, 1814, he crossed the Rhine, garrisoned Nancy on the 17th of the same month, and, after winning the battle of La Rothière, pressed forward to

Paris; but his scattered corps were routed by Napoleon, and he fought his way back to Châlons with great loss. On the 9th of March, however, he defeated Napoleon at Laon; and at the end of the month, after being joined by Schwarzenberg and his corps, he again advanced towards Paris. The day at Montmartre crowned the brilliant deeds of this campaign, and on the 31st of March Blücher entered the French capital. Frederic William III. created him Prince of Wahlstadt, in remembrance of the victory at the Katzbach, and gave him an estate in Silesia. In England, whither he followed the allied sovereigns, he was received with an enthusiasm never before excited by a German. The University of Oxford conferred on him the degree of Doctor of Laws. After Napoleon's return, in 1815, Blücher once more assumed the general command, and promptly led the army into the Netherlands. On the 16th of June, 1815, he lost the battle of Ligny, in which he was personally in great danger, from his horse falling on him. The victory of the allies at the battle of Waterloo was completed by Blücher's timely appearance on the field. He ordered his Prussians to pursue the flying enemy, which they did the whole night. Declining the offered truce, Blücher marched against Paris, and on the second taking of that city manifested a strong desire to retaliate on Paris the spoliation that other capitals had suffered at the hands of the French; but he was held in check by the Duke of Wellington. In order to reward Blücher's services to Prussia and the common cause, Frederic William III. created a new order, the badge of which consisted of an iron cross surrounded by golden rays. In August, 1819, a colossal bronze statue was erected in honor of Blücher in his native town. He died in September, 1819, after a short illness, at his estate of Kriebowitz, in Silesia. In Berlin, a statue twelve feet high, modeled by Rauch, and cast in bronze by Lequine and Reisinger, was erected to his memory, in June, 1826, and at Breslau another, also executed by Rauch, in 1827. Blücher, as a man and as a soldier, was rough and uncultivated, but energetic, open, and decided in character. His ardent enthusiasm for the liberation of Prussia and Germany from a foreign yoke, and his uncompromising pursuit of this noble aim, have justly rendered him a hero in the eyes of the German people. The old red uniform, and the old name of "Blücher's Hussars," were restored to the Fifth Regiment of Hussars by Frederic William IV., on the occasion of the centenary celebration of Blücher's birthday.

NAPOLEON'S MARSHALS.

Napoleon selected men to lead his armies from their personal qualities alone. Few of them were taken from the upper classes. Augereau was the son of a grocer, Bernadotte of an attorney; Bessières, St. Cyr, Jourdan, and the fiery Junot all entered the army as privates. Kleber was an architect; the impetuous Lannes the son of a poor mechanic; Lefèvre, Loison, and the bold Scotchman Macdonald were all of humble origin. The victorious Massena was an orphan sailor boy, and the reckless, chivalric Murat, the son of a country landlord. Victor, Suchet, Oudinot, and the stern and steady Soult, commenced their ascent from the lowest step of fame's ladder. And, last of all, Ney, "the bravest of the brave," was the son of a poor tradesman of Saar-Louis. Immediately on the assumption of supreme power, Napoleon created eighteen marshals, leaving two vacancies to be filled afterwards. Three of these, Kellerman, Lefèvre, and Serrurier, were honorary appointments, given for having distinguished themselves in previous battles,—now they reposed on their laurels as members of the Senate. Kleber and Desaix were dead, both killed on the same day, one in Egypt and the other at Marengo, or they would have been first on the list. It will be sufficient to name them, with their titles, which designate the engagements in which they distinguished themselves.

Alexandre Berthier, Marshal of the Empire, Grand Huntsman, Prince of Neufchâtel, and Prince of Wagram.

Pierre-François-Charles Augereau, Duke of Castiglione.

Louis-Nicholas Davout, Prince of Eckmühl.

Louis-Gouvion St. Cyr, received his marshal's baton in the Russian campaign, after the battle at Polotsk.

Jean Lannes, Duke of Montebello.

Rose-Adrien de Moncey, Duke of Conegliano.

Etienne-Jacques-Joseph-Alexandre Macdonald, Duke of Tarentum.

Edward-Adolphe-Casimir-Joseph Mortier, Marshal of the Empire.

Nicholas-Jean-de-Dieu Soult, Duke of Dalmatia.

Joachim Murat, Grand Duke of Berg and Cleves, and afterwards King of Naples.

François-Joseph Lefèvre, Duke of Dantzig.

Andrea Massena, Duke of Rivoli.

Augustus-Frédéric-Louis Viesse de Marmont, Duke of Ragusa.

Victor Perrin, Marshal Victor.

Guillaume-Marie-Anne Brune, Marshal Brune.

Charles-Nicholas Oudinot, Duke of Reggio.

CONTEMPORARIES.

Jean-Baptiste Bessières, Duke of Istria.

Jean-Baptiste Jourdan, Marshal Jourdan.

Jean-Baptiste-Jules Bernadotte, Prince of Ponte Corvo. In 1818, Charles XIV., King of Sweden.

Louis-Gabriel Suchet, Duke of Albufera.

Joseph Poniatowski, Marshal Poniatowski, died at the battle of Leipsic.

Emmanuel Grouchy, Marshal Grouchy.

Michael Ney, Duke of Elchingen.

Michael Duroc, Duke of Friuli.

Hugh Bernard Maret, Duke of Bassano.

ARTISTS.

The most distinguished sculptors in the time of the Emperor Francis II. were Canova, Schadow, Thorwaldsen, and Rauch.

The celebrated painters were Benjamin West, Houdon, Carl and Horace Vernet, Ary Schefer, Paul Delaroche, and Jacques Louis David, the founder of the modern French school of painting. He devoted himself to the classic style of art, and during the Revolution was artistic superintendent of the grand national fêtes and solemnities that recalled the customs of ancient Greece. As a member of the Convention, he voted for the death of Louis XVI. In 1804, Napoleon appointed him his first painter, and among his best and most celebrated works are several historic portraits of the Emperor, such as "Napoleon crossing the Alps." David was warmly attached to Napoleon, and in 1814, when the Duke of Wellington paid a visit to his studio, and expressed a wish that the artist would paint his portrait, he coldly replied, "I never paint Englishmen." As one of the regicides of Louis XVI., he was banished, in 1816, from France, and died in exile at Brussels in 1825.

The famous musicians were Cherubini, Beethoven, Auber, Spohr, Von Weber, Herold, Rossini, Mendelssohn, Meyerbeer, Schubert, Donizetti, and Bellini.

The poets were Uhland, Körner, Klopstock, Heine, Burns, Mrs. Hemans, Lord Byron, Moore, Shelley, Keats, and Scott.

The noted authors were August Wilhelm Schlegel, Frederic Schlegel, Tieck, Novalis (Hardenberg), Jean Paul Richter, Kotzebue, Madame de Staël, Caroline von Pichler, and Theresa Huber.

The historians were Niebuhr, Hallam, and Neander.

The philosophers were Jacobi, Fichte, Schleiermacher, divine, philosopher, and philologist, Hegel, Schelling, and Humboldt, the most distinguished savant of the nineteenth century.

Friedrich Heinrich Alexander von Humboldt was born in Berlin A.D. 1769. He first studied at the University of Frankfort-on-the-Oder. An acquaintance with the young botanist Willdenow led him to gratify his tastes in the study of the cryptogamous plants and of the numerous family of grasses. He passed a year at the University of Göttingen, studying philosophy under Heyne, and extending his knowledge of natural history by the instructions of Blumenbach, Beckmann, Lichtenberg, and Link, and by excursions on the Hartz Mountains and the banks of the Rhine. In 1790 he made a rapid but instructive journey with George Foster through Belgium, Holland, England, and France. On his return to Germany he came in contact with Klopstock, Voss, Claudio, and the two Stollbergs. At the mining academy of Freiberg he made the acquaintance of Freiesleben, Von Buch, and Del Rio, the last of whom he found twelve years later settled in Mexico. With Freiesleben he made the first geological description of one of the Bohemian mountain-ranges. In 1792 he was promoted to the post of superior mining officer in the Fichtelgebirge in the Franconian principalities, which office he held five years. In 1793-4 he explored the mining districts in Upper Bavaria, Galicia, and Southern Prussia. In 1795 he made a geological journey through Tyrol, Lombardy, and Switzerland, gaining instruction from Volta in Como and from Scarpa in Pavia. In 1796 he was sent on a diplomatic mission to the headquarters of General Moreau, in Suabia, and was urged by General Desaix to abandon his intended visit to the tropical regions of the New World, in order to attach himself to the already meditated French expedition to Egypt. From the time he first heard of Galvani's discovery he had accumulated materials for his work, "Ueber die gereizte Muskel- und Nervenfaser," etc. In 1797 he passed three months at Jena, in intimate relations with Goethe and Schiller; studied anatomy under Loder, and then began a second journey to Italy with a desire to see Vesuvius, Stromboli, and Etna before his departure from Europe. The revolutionary condition of Italy prevented this journey, and he passed the winter in Salzburg and Berchtesgaden, occupied with meteorological observations. He then visited Paris to procure scientific instruments, and became intimate with the future companion of his travels, the young botanist Bonpland.

Disappointed in his plans of travels by the wars in Europe, he, in company with Bonpland, resolved to spend the winter in Spain. They passed leisurely through Perpignan, Montserrat, and Valencia, making botanical, astronomical, and magnetic observations by the way, and reached Madrid in 1799. Under the patronage of the secretary of state,

he was received with distinguished favor at court; and all the Spanish possessions in America and the East Indies were opened to him. He received two passports,—one from the first secretary of state, the other from the council of the Indies,—which permitted him the free use of all instruments for astronomical and geodetic observations, the measurement of mountains, the collection of objects of natural history, and investigations of every kind that might lead to the advancement of science. Such extensive privileges had never before been granted to any traveler. He left Madrid, measuring the elevations on his way through Old Castile, Leon, and Galicia, and in June, 1799, embarked with Bonpland, in the frigate Pizarro, from Corunna. Avoiding the English cruisers, they reached Teneriffe, where they tarried to ascend the peak and make observations on the natural features of the island, and arrived in Venezuela in July, 1799. After visiting all the northern part of South America, and ascending Chimborazo, they went to Mexico, then to Cuba, and embarked at Havana for Philadelphia, where they enjoyed a friendly reception from President Jefferson; and then, leaving the United States, they landed at Bordeaux, in 1804. Humboldt now selected Paris for his residence, no other city offering so many aids to scientific study or having so many distinguished savants, and remained there until March, 1805, arranging his numerous collections and manuscripts, and experimenting with Gay-Lussac in the laboratory of the Polytechnic School on the chemical elements of the atmosphere. He was accompanied by Gay-Lussac, who exerted a lasting influence on his chemical studies, in a visit to Rome and Naples, and also by Von Buch, on his return through Switzerland to Berlin. In hope of modifying the ignominious treaty of Tilsit by negotiation, the government resolved, in 1808, to send the young brother of the king, Prince William of Prussia, to the Emperor Napoleon at Paris. During the French occupation of Berlin, Humboldt was busy in his garden, making hourly observations of the magnetic declination, and now unexpectedly received the command of the king to accompany Prince William, and to aid him by his greater knowledge of influential persons and experience of the world. As the condition of Germany made it impossible for him to publish there his large scientific works, he was permitted by Frederic William III., as one of the foreign members of the French Academy of Sciences, to remain in Paris, which was his residence, excepting brief periods of absence, from 1808 to 1827. When, in 1810, his elder brother, Karl Wilhelm, resigned the direction of educational affairs in Prussia to become ambassador at Vienna, the former post was urged upon Alexander by Hardenberg;

but he declined it, preferring his independence, especially as the publication of his astronomical, zoological, and botanical works was not yet far advanced. Though the position was one of the highest at the court of Berlin, he chose to remain in the society of the illustrious men who then made Paris the centre of intellectual culture. He had also decided upon a scientific expedition through Upper India, the region of the Himalaya, and Thibet, in preparation for which he was diligently learning the Persian language under Sylvestre de Sacy and André de Nerciat. In 1814, Humboldt went to England in the suite of the King of Prussia; and again, in company with Arago, when his brother was appointed ambassador to London; and again, in 1818, with Valentines, from Paris to London, and from London to Aix-la-Chapelle, where the king and Hardenberg wished to have him near them during the congress.

In 1829 began a new era in his active career. He undertook, under the patronage of the Emperor Nicholas, an expedition to Northern Asia, the Chinese Soongaria, and the Caspian Sea, which was magnificently fitted out by the influence of the minister, Count von Canicrin. The exploration of mines of gold and platinum, the discovery of diamonds outside the tropics, astronomical and magnetic observations, and geognostic and botanical collections were the principal results of this undertaking, in which Humboldt was accompanied by Ehrenberg and Gustav Rose. The entire journey of over one thousand miles was made in nine months. The convulsions of 1830 gave a more political direction to Humboldt's activity for several years, without interrupting his scientific career. He had accompanied the Crown Prince of Prussia, in May, 1830, to Warsaw, to the last constitutional diet, opened by the Emperor Nicholas in person, and he attended the king to the baths of Töplitz. On the news of the French revolution and the accession of Louis Philippe, he was selected, partly on account of his long intimacy with the House of Orleans, to convey to Paris the Prussian recognition of the new monarch, and to send to political advices to Berlin. The latter office fell to him again in 1834-35, and he was called upon to fulfill it five times in the following twelve years, residing four or five months in Paris on each mission. In 1841 he made a rapid journey with King Frederic William IV. to England, to attend the baptism of the Prince of Wales; visited Denmark in 1845; and resided in Paris several months in 1847-48, from which time he lived in Prussia, usually in Berlin, pursuing his scientific labors in his advanced age with undiminished zeal and energy. The personal habits of Humboldt were peculiar. He slept but four hours, rose at

six in the winter and five in summer, studied two hours, drank a cup of coffee, and returned to his study to answer letters, of which he received at a low estimate one hundred thousand annually. From twelve till two he received visits, and then returned to study until the dinner-hour. From four till eleven he passed at the table, generally in company with the king, but sometimes at the meetings of learned societies or in the company of friends. At eleven he retired to his study, and his best books are said to have been written at midnight. Humboldt died at Berlin in May, 1859, aged ninety, after an illness of about two weeks, and in the long procession which followed his funeral car to the tomb were ministers of state, generals of the army, professors in the universities, officers of the court, the diplomatic corps, academicians, students, and citizens; and the coffin was received at the church by the Prince Regent (now the Emperor William) and the Princes of Prussia. "The influence which Humboldt exerted upon science," says Agassiz, "is incalculable. With him ends a great period in the history of science, a period to which Cuvier, Laplace, Arago, Gay-Lussac, De Candolle, and Robert Brown belonged!"

The eighteenth century opened with lustre derived from the physical demonstrations of Newton, and closed magnificently with the telescopic discoveries of Sir William Herschel, who added to our universe the primary planet Uranus, with its satellites, gave two more satellites to Saturn, resolved the Milky Way into countless myriads of stars, and unraveled the mystery of nebulae and of double and triple stars. Laplace, in his great work, the "*Mécanique Céleste*," gave what further proof was needed of the truth and sufficiency of the Newtonian theory. The nineteenth century opened with the discovery of the four small planets,—Ceres, in 1801, by Piazzi; Pallas and Vesta, by Olbers, the former in 1802, and the latter in 1807; and Juno, by Harding, in 1804. Caroline Lucretia Herschel, sister of Sir William, may be mentioned among the astronomers.

Jean Frederic Oberlin, the philanthropist, was born in Strasburg in 1740, and died in Waldbach, in the Ban de la Roche, in 1826.

Edward Jenner, an English physician, became celebrated for his discovery of vaccination. His first subject was a boy, whom he vaccinated on May 14, 1796, an anniversary still celebrated in several parts of England.

Robert Fulton, an American inventor and civil engineer, celebrated for the successful introduction of steam navigation, was born in Lancaster County, Pennsylvania, in 1765, and died in New York in 1815. The committee of the first London Exhibition, in 1851, said of him,

"Many persons, in various countries, claim the honor of having first invented small boats propelled by steam; but it is to the undaunted perseverance and exertions of the American Fulton that is due the everlasting honor of having produced this revolution both in naval architecture and navigation."

George Stephenson, the founder of the railway system of Great Britain, and perfecter of the locomotive-engine, possessed that shrewd decision which ingenious persons often want, enabling him to detect what is truly valuable in the numerous mechanical schemes which at any time are afloat, and to devise the means of realizing them. His first important undertaking was the construction of a railroad eight miles in length for the owners of the Hatton colliery, which, on November 18, 1822, was successfully opened, the level parts being traversed by locomotives, while stationary engines were employed to overcome the heavy grades.

Sir Humphry Davy, one of the greatest chemists of his own or any other age, was born at Penzance, in Cornwall, in 1778, and died at Geneva in 1829. The Genevese government evinced its respect by a public funeral. So widely spread was Sir Humphry's reputation, that he was a member of almost all the scientific institutions in the world.

Statistical records were kept by the Jews, the Greeks, and the Romans. In later times, the first writer on statistics was the Venetian doge, Tommaso Mocenigo, who in 1421 collected the materials for a memoir on the situation of different empires, their monetary systems, finances, public debts, etc. Within a few years past, societies for the collection of statistics have been established in most of the countries of Christendom. The Statistical Society of London was founded in 1834. The British Association for the Advancement of Science has had a statistical section since 1833; the American Association has a similar section; and the encouragement of the collectors of statistical matters is one of the avowed means by which the Smithsonian Institution proposes to diffuse knowledge among men.

The first *savings-bank* was instituted in Hamburg in 1778; in Berne in 1787; and in England in 1797. The first in the United States was instituted in Philadelphia in 1816, though Franklin had suggested something of the kind fifty years earlier; the second was in Boston, the same year; and the third in New York, in 1819.

Mayer Anselm Rothschild was born at Frankfort-on-the-Main in 1743, and died there in 1812. He was educated for a rabbi, but commenced business as a small trader, and eventually procured a situation in a Hanoverian banking-house. Subsequently he returned

to Frankfort, and established himself as a banker there, and the rich Landgrave of Hesse, William IX., who afterwards, as Elector of Hesse, took the title of William I., made him his banker. Rothschild first became known as a negotiator of government loans in 1792, when the French general Custine imposed upon the senate of Frankfort a very heavy ransom, to be raised in a short time, as the alternative of the sacking of their city. The senate could devise no means of procuring the money, when the Jewish banker obtained it for them from the landgrave. His services in negotiating loans were afterwards frequently in demand among the smaller states of Germany. In 1806, Napoleon decreed the forfeiture of the states of the sovereigns of Hesse-Cassel and Brunswick, and sent an army to enforce his decree. The elector was unable to offer resistance, but he had five million dollars in silver which he was unwilling to give up to Napoleon and unable to carry with him in his flight. Sending for Rothschild, he offered him the use of the money without interest if he would remove it to a place of safety. The banker and his sons, whom he had associated with him in business, enjoyed the use of this large sum for eight years. When Napoleon was banished to Elba, the elector gave notice that he should withdraw it; but when Napoleon escaped and returned to France, he was so much alarmed that he urged the Rothschilds to keep it at the interest of two per cent. per annum, which they did till 1823, when they returned it to his son and successor, having won by their faithful and able management the confidence of courts and financiers. Mayer Anselm Rothschild had ten children, five of them sons, all of whom survived him. The eldest, Anselm, was his father's partner and successor at Frankfort. The second, Solomon, at first the traveling partner of the firm, was eventually established in Vienna. The third, Nathan Mayer, settled in London in 1798, and became the most prominent, as he was generally deemed the ablest, financier of the family. Charles settled at Naples in 1821. James was for a time with his brother Solomon at Vienna, but eventually took up his residence in Paris. The five brothers constituted but one firm, in which all had an equal interest, but conducted their business under five branches, each under the charge of one of the brothers. Nathan Rothschild is said to have known the result of the battle of Waterloo eight hours before the British government, and to have realized over one million dollars by a skillful use of that knowledge. The Rothschilds for many years have been the principal takers of the loans of the European governments, and have in some instances compelled peace by refusing to furnish the sinews of war. Within

a period of less than twelve years they have furnished in loans two hundred million dollars to England, fifty million dollars to Austria, forty million dollars to Prussia, eighty million dollars to France, fifty million dollars to Naples, twenty-five million dollars to Russia, twelve million dollars to Brazil, and four million dollars to some of the smaller states. The promptness and courtesy with which they responded to Metternich's application for a loan in 1813 led the Emperor Francis to confer on each of the brothers a patent of nobility, with the title of baron of the empire. Of the five brothers, James is the only one now living, but the members of the third, and even some of the fourth, generation, have been taken into the partnership. The leading active partner is now Baron Nathan Lionel de Rothschild, of London, son of Nathan, born in London in 1808, and succeeding to his father's titles and connections in 1836. In 1847 he was elected a member of the House of Commons from the city of London; but declining to take the ordinary oath, "on the true faith of a Christian," he did not take his seat, although regularly re-elected till 1858, when, the disabilities being removed, he took his place in the house, being the first adherent of the Jewish religion who ever sat in the Commons. Sir Anthony, born in 1810, the second son of Nathan, was created a baronet in 1846. The members of the family have generally inter-married, so that their immense wealth will probably remain in a few hands for many years. They have met with few heavy losses, the only one of considerable amount being the result of the revolutions of 1848, by which they are said to have lost in nine months forty million dollars; but so vast was their wealth that even this did not in the least impair their credit or position. They have now banking-houses in most of the large cities in the world.

UNITED STATES.

It was in 1792 that Francis II. became Emperor of Germany, and in that same year Washington was re-elected President of the United States. To him succeeded John Adams, elected by the Federal party; Thomas Jefferson, the candidate of the Republican or Democratic party; James Madison, Republican. Distinctions of party seemed scarcely to exist when James Monroe was elected President, Federalists and Republicans uniting in the support of the government. President Jefferson appointed Monroe, in 1803, envoy extraordinary to the French government, to negotiate, in conjunction with the resident minister, Robert R. Livingston, for the purchase of Louisiana, or a right of depot for the United States on the Mississippi. The result exceeded

the most sanguine expectations of the administration. Bonaparte needed money, and within a fortnight after the arrival of Monroe in Paris the ministers secured, for the comparatively trifling sum of fifteen million dollars, the entire "territory of Orleans" and "district of Louisiana." Monroe became President in 1817, and was re-elected in 1821. The year 1824, the last of Monroe's administration, was signalized by the visit to the United States of the venerable Lafayette, who was received throughout the Union with enthusiastic exhibitions of public affection and respect. Monroe's efforts to advance the interests and heighten the general prosperity of the whole nation were energetic and unceasing. On the great question of intervention by the European powers in the affairs of the Western continent, he assumed a bold and uncompromising position, which was supported by the people, and has ever since operated as a check upon the governments of the Old World. John Quincy Adams was elected President in 1825; he was succeeded by General Andrew Jackson, in 1829, who was re-elected in 1833.

INTERREGNUM.

AUSTRIA.

Ferdinand I., Emperor of Austria, the eldest son of Francis I., was born at Vienna in 1793. He was, from the first, of a weak constitution, and was unfortunate in those to whom his education was intrusted. Yet he showed on all occasions a goodness of heart, and followed the advice of his uncle, the Archduke Charles, to whom he was much attached. While crown prince, he traveled through his Italian provinces, Switzerland, and part of France, and took great interest in manufacturing industry. In 1835 he succeeded his father on the throne. It was expected, from his character, that he would inaugurate a more liberal policy than his predecessors had pursued, but the absolutist principles that seemed destined to rule forever the Austrian cabinet triumphed, and Metternich was allowed to carry on the government. It now became obvious that Ferdinand sadly lacked moral decision, and his "goodness" exhausted itself in numerous acts of clemency and benevolence. Nevertheless, during his reign the industry of Austria made a great advance, and the great net-work of railroads and highways was begun. The insurrection in Galicia, in 1846, led to the annexation of Cracow to Austria. No country was more affected by the European movement that began in the winter of 1847-48 than Austria, though the revolutionary storms that shook the empire cannot be attributed to any want of good will to his people on the part of Ferdinand, but only to a complete want of political

wisdom. On the disturbances breaking out in March, he consented to the dismissal of Metternich and the appointment of a responsible ministry, and granted the outlines of a constitution. An insurrection broke out in Milan, and Radetzky, the military commander, was forced to retire on Verona. Venice rose at the same time and drove out the Austrians. In May, the Emperor, with his court, fled to Innspruck. A Slavic insurrection broke out in Prague, which was repressed with bloody severity by Prince Windischgrätz. While the Emperor was lingering at Innspruck, leaving Vienna in the power of the populace, and the Hungarians were pursuing an independent course, in Italy the power of Austria began to recover itself.

Radetzky had at first been reduced to the maintaining of a defensive position at Verona, against Charles Albert of Sardinia, who had declared war on Austria at the outbreak of the revolution, and the forces that came to his aid from Tuscany, Rome, and Naples; and the foreign policy of Austria was in such a state of disorganization, that negotiations were entered into under the mediation of Great Britain, offering the Lombards independence on moderate conditions. In June, however, Radetzky took up the offensive, reduced in succession Vicenza, Padua, and other cities, and then, turning against the chief Sardinian force, defeated it at Custoza, in July, and drove it from the field. The fruits of the victory were the dissolution of Charles Albert's army, and a truce which again delivered Lombardy to Austria.

In the mean time, the government at Vienna was more powerless than ever. The Emperor remained at Innspruck, and the constituent diet was opened, in July, by his uncle, the Archduke John, as his representative. In Hungary, the Croats, under their Ban, Jellachich, opposed the predominance of the Magyars, and refused obedience to the Hungarian government, which, under the Batthyanyi-Kossuth ministry, was pursuing a policy almost independent of Austria. Jellachich's resistance was officially condemned by the Emperor, and he was threatened with deposition; but, as subsequently appeared, his conduct was secretly approved by the court. The Archduke-Palatine Stephen now left Hungary, after a last attempt at conciliation, and the Emperor, who had returned to Vienna after repeated invitations, named Count Lamberg commissioner, with the supreme command in Hungary. Lamberg, however, was murdered on the bridge of Pesth, in September. The Hungarian parliament was now dissolved, and the command given to Jellachich. But the parliament continued its sittings, and appointed Kossuth president of the committee of defense. When the imperial troops began to march against Hungary, a frightful

insurrection broke out in Vienna, in October, which was attributed to Hungarian instigation. The arsenal was stormed, and the war-minister, Latour, murdered; the court fled to Olmütz, a committee of safety was appointed, the armed populace organized, and the Polish general Bem was put at the head of military affairs, while the diet wavered between loyalty and revolution. In the mean time, the military forces had withdrawn and joined Jellachich, in order to prevent the Hungarians from coming to the aid of the Viennese. Windischgrätz now approached with an army, and declared Vienna in a state of siege. The attack began on the 23d of October, and after a resistance of eight days Vienna surrendered.

Severe measures were then taken, and a number of leaders, among others Robert Blum, were condemned and shot. The diet now met at Kremsir, and a new ministry was formed, into which Prince Schwartzenberg, Count Stadion, Bach, Bruch, and others entered. But the vigorous policy thought to be necessary for the restoration, and advocated by the Archduchess Sophia, was not responded to by the easy nature of her brother-in-law, Ferdinand I. Accordingly, the Emperor abdicated, December 2, as did also his brother, the Archduke Francis Charles; and the latter's son, Francis Joseph, was declared Emperor, to the great satisfaction of his mother, the Archduchess Sophia.

Since that time the ex-Emperor Ferdinand has mostly resided in Prague, enjoying in his retirement a certain degree of popularity with the masses, but without any political influence. In February, 1831, he married Caroline, daughter of Victor Emanuel I., King of Sardinia; but he has no children.

Sophia of Bavaria, daughter of the Elector and King Maximilian I. (Joseph), whom the first Napoleon raised to a throne, was born amid the glories of the Napoleonic Empire, and educated in the strictest hatred of all that the Napoleonic Empire had brought to pass, saving only and excepting the elevation to the royal dignity of the ancient Electoral House of Wittelsbach. One of her older sisters, Charlotte, who married the Crown Prince of Würtemberg, was divorced while Sophia was yet a child. The Roman Church tolerates no divorce. But courtesy to great kings enabled the divorced Princess of Würtemberg and Bavaria to become the third and last wife of Francis II., last Emperor of the Holy Roman German Empire, and first Emperor of Austria. Under her auspices, her cadet sister, the Duchess Sophia, became, in 1824, at the age of nineteen, an Archduchess of Austria, as the wife of the Archduke Francis Charles, and consequently the step-daughter-in-law of her own imperial self. Sophia, once fixed in

her place at the Austrian court, soon made herself felt as a power. In 1848, when the storm broke over all the thrones of Europe, Sophia was almost the only one among the personages of the House of Hapsburg-Lorraine who neither trembled at its thunder nor was paralyzed by its lightnings.

ENGLAND.

Victoria, the only daughter of Edward, Duke of Kent, succeeded her uncle, William IV., and her accession to the throne was hailed with more than ordinary enthusiasm. The 28th of June, 1838, witnessed the coronation of the young queen, which took place amidst universal rejoicing. The first great event of 1840 was the marriage of her majesty with Prince Albert of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha. An expedition was sent soon after to China, to obtain indemnity for the past, and better security for British commerce for the future. The following year brought with it a cessation of hostilities by the occupation of Canton, which was ransomed by the payment of six million dollars to the British, by way of indemnity for the expenses of the war. In 1842 the war with China broke out afresh, but it was renewed with so much vigor on the part of the British government that the Chinese were compelled to sue for peace, and to pay twenty-one million dollars. Several Chinese ports were thrown open to the British merchants, and the island of Hong-Kong was ceded in perpetuity to the British Empire, with other important commercial advantages. The Afghan war was followed by disturbances in India, and one of the most eventful and fearful struggles that ever called into action the strength and valor of the Anglo-Indian army was closed successfully in 1846.

FRANCE.

Louis Philippe, King of the French from 1830 to 1848, was born in the Palais Royal, Paris, in 1793, and died in exile at Claremont, near London, in 1850. He was the son of Philippe Egalité, Duke of Orleans, and of Louise de Bourbon de Penthievre. On the father's side he was descended from a brother of Louis XIV.; on his mother's, from the Count of Toulouse, a natural legitimized offspring of that monarch and Madame de Montespan. His godfather was Louis XVI.; his godmother was Marie Antoinette. His earliest preceptor was M. de Bonnard. In 1781 he was placed under the care of Madame de Genlis. In 1785, when his father became Duke of Orleans, he exchanged his original title of Duke of Valois for that of Duke of Chartres. In 1793 his father was arrested, and Louis Philippe fled to

Switzerland, where he procured employment in a boarding-school at Reichenau, giving lessons in mathematics and geography under the name of Chabot-Latour. In 1794, when the news of his father's execution reached him, he left Switzerland and went to Hamburg, intending to proceed to the United States. Unable to leave immediately, he employed the interval in visiting Denmark, Sweden, Norway, Lapland, and Finland. In 1796 he took passage as a Danish subject to the United States, and landed at Philadelphia. In company with the Duke de Montpensier and the Count de Beaujolais, who, after the recovery of their liberty, lost no time in joining their elder brother, he made the tour of the United States. In 1800 they sailed for England, and, after several fruitless attempts to go to Spain to visit their mother, they took up their abode at Twickenham. Both of his brothers died of consumption,—Montpensier in 1807, and Beaujolais in 1808, the latter while on his way to Malta. Louis Philippe now went to the court of Ferdinand IV., at Palermo, where he made the acquaintance of the accomplished daughter of the king. He was at length permitted to visit his mother in Spain, who, with his sister Adelaide, accompanied him to Palermo, where his marriage with Marie Amelie took place in November, 1809, and where his first child, afterwards Ferdinand, Duke of Orleans, was born, in 1810. After the fall of Napoleon he returned to France, having been absent twenty-one years.

Charles X. was too despotic, and when the news of the success of his army in Algiers reached Paris, on the 9th of July, he hoped it might gain him popularity; accordingly, on the 26th he issued ordinances abolishing the freedom of the press, dissolving the new chamber of deputies, though it had never met, and appointing a new mode of election. The insurrection now broke out, and on the 29th the troops of the line declared for the cause of the people. Charles immediately signed an order for the repeal of the obnoxious ordinances, but it was too late. Charles and the Duke d'Angoulême formally abdicated in favor of his infant grandson, the Duke of Bordeaux, now called the Count de Chambord, or Henry V.

La Fayette was once more appointed to the command of the National Guard; the revolution of the "Three Days" was ended; and on the 9th of August, Louis Philippe was invited to become, not the *King of France*, as the old monarchs styled themselves, but the *King of the French*, thereby recognizing the existence of the people. La Fayette led the new king forth into a balcony which overlooked the square, and embraced him, to show his own approval of the act; then, presenting him to the people, he exclaimed, "Now we have the best of

republics!" Louis Philippe accepted the charter, signed the constitution, and, if he had gone on as he began, all would have been well; but, as he grew older, he became ambitious, and set about schemes for aggrandizing his family and founding a dynasty on the principles of ancient despotism, the result of which was his overthrow, in 1848. Abdicating, then, in favor of his grandson, the Count of Paris, he fled from the capital, the same morning on which the republic of France was proclaimed. With great difficulty he succeeded in crossing the Seine with his wife from Honfleur to Havre, under the name of Smith. From thence he was carried by a steamer sent for his use by the English government, and went to Claremont, the palace of the King of the Belgians, where he spent the rest of his life.

HIS CHILDREN.

Ferdinand, Duke of Orleans, heir-apparent to the throne, was killed in June, 1842, in jumping from his carriage, the horses of which had taken fright; Louis, Duke de Nemours; Francis, Prince de Joinville, who, in 1840, went to St. Helena, and brought the body of Napoleon I. to Paris, to be interred in the Hôtel des Invalides; Henry, Duke d'Aumale; and Antoine, Duke de Montpensier.

SONS OF FERDINAND, DUKE OF ORLEANS.

Louis Philippe, Count of Paris, the representative of the Orleans Bourbon line; and Robert, Duke of Chartres.

PRUSSIA.

Frederic William IV. was born in 1795. He received a careful scientific education, though his boyhood was passed in the most disastrous period of Prussian history, and his youth in that of the great struggle against Napoleon. Ancillon, Delbrück, Scharnhorst, Kneissebeck, Savigny, Ritter, and Rauch were among his teachers in philosophy, belles-lettres, military science, political economy, and art. He was often present on the scene of action during the last campaign against Napoleon, became familiarly acquainted with many distinguished men of his age, of whom Humboldt remained attached to him through life, and developed his taste for the fine arts while residing in Paris after its occupation by the allies, and on a journey to Italy in 1828. As military governor of Pomerania, his affability gained him general popularity, and great expectations had been formed of his future career, when he succeeded to the throne, in 1840. His first solemn declaration at Königsberg, a limited political amnesty, the reinstating

of Arndt, the old liberal poet, the reappointment to office of the popular lieutenant-general Von Boyen, the conciliatory termination of a difficulty between the state and the Roman Catholic clergy, were hailed with applause; but the appointment of statesmen like Hassenpflug and Eichhorn, the patronage bestowed on the nobility, as well as on the representatives of the historico-romantic and pietistic schools, the expulsion from the kingdom of Prussian and non-Prussian democrats, and the cordial relations of the court with the Emperor Nicholas, brother-in-law of the king, soon destroyed the hopes of the liberal party of the nation. The Polish conspiracy of 1846 was detected in time, and the insurgents were put down with rigor. The French revolution of 1848 involved the whole of Germany in a flame. The popular movement was victorious all over the southwest and south of the confederation before Frederic William was forced to yield to its irresistible current. Even after the fall of Metternich, in Vienna, he was determined to maintain his royal authority, and to grant liberties only as free gifts. When at length, however, the citizens of Berlin and troops came into collision, Frederic William came forward as the professed regenerator of his country, offering to lay down his royal title and merge his kingdom in the common fatherland, for the salvation of which he recommended a cordial union of all German princes and people in one bond, and proposed himself as the guide and leader of this new Germany. His own subjects, and at first many Germans in other states, were carried away by these Utopian schemes.

Being displeased with the revolutionary character of the Frankfort diet, he refused to accept the imperial crown which it offered him; his ardor in the cause of his fatherland cooled, his pledges to his own subjects were evaded as long and as completely as the occasion permitted, and his policy became more strongly tinged than before with a jealousy of Austria. His powerful co-operation in putting down the insurrection in Poland and the democratic party in Baden, gave, however, ample proof of his determined opposition to every popular demonstration against absolutism. In the war of the Schleswig-Holstein duchies, the Prussians acted in concert with the disaffected against their sovereign, the King of Denmark, occupying the ducal provinces in the name and on behalf of the diet. The latter years of the reign of Frederic William IV. were characterized by great advance in the material prosperity and internal improvement of the country. Extensive lines of railway and post-roads were opened; the river navigation was greatly facilitated; treaties of commerce were formed with foreign countries, and great expansion given to the Prussian and North Ger-

man Zollverein; the army was put upon a footing of hitherto unprecedented efficiency in arms and artillery, and the educational system of the country was still further developed. The life of Frederic William was twice attempted: the first in 1844, by Tschech, a dismissed burgomaster, the second by an insane discharged soldier, Sefeloge, in 1850. In 1857 the king was seized by a malady that led to temporary insanity, which, increasing by degrees, compelled him, in October, 1858, to give up the personal management of affairs, and to repair for the restoration of his health to the Tyrol, and subsequently to Italy. His marriage with Elizabeth, Princess of Bavaria, being without issue, his brother William, Prince of Prussia, became regent, till the death of the king, in 1861, when he succeeded to the throne.

The Elector Maximilian IV., Joseph, of Bavaria, who took the title of King Maximilian I. in 1805, died in 1825. His wife was Wilhelmina Augusta, daughter of the Landgrave George William of Hesse-Darmstadt. Their children were—

Louis I., who succeeded him.

Augusta Amalia, who married Eugene Beauharnais, Duke of Leuchtenberg, in 1806.

Charlotte Augusta, who married Frederic, Crown Prince of Würtemberg, in 1814, and in 1816 the Emperor Francis I. of Austria.

Charles Theodore.

Elizabeth Ludovica, who married Frederic William IV. of Prussia.

Amalia Augusta, who married the Prince of Saxony, afterwards King John.

Sophia Dorothea, who married Francis Charles, Archduke of Austria.

Mary Anna, who married Frederic Augustus, King of Saxony.

Ludovica Wilhelmina, who married Maximilian, Duke of Bavaria.

Louis I., King of Bavaria, was a well-meaning, liberal, and intellectual monarch; he distinguished himself particularly by his generous and enlightened patronage of letters and art. He removed the University of Landshut to Munich, reorganized the Academy of Fine Arts, and immortalized himself by the construction of the Basilica, Pinakothek, Walhalla, and other public works and monuments, destined to be repositories of works of art, or to diffuse a love of art. In the sphere of learning, he encouraged more especially historical studies, and his taste for poetry is attested by his own publications, "Gedichte," in 1829, and "Walhalla's Genossen," in 1843. The first railroad in Germany was opened from Nuremberg to Fürth, in 1838. In 1836 the Ludwig-Canal, uniting the Main with the Danube, was begun, and it was finished in 1845. In the early part of his reign he was very popular; but from 1831

the ultramontane party predominated in his counsels, and in 1847 the hostility to that party, and to Lola Montez, who was supposed to have great influence with the king, led him to resign in favor of his son.* The wife of Louis I. was Theresa, a princess of Saxe-Altenburg. His children were Maximilian II.; Matilda, who married the heir of the Grand Duke of Hesse-Darmstadt; Otho, King of Greece; Luitpold, who married Augusta, daughter of the Grand Duke Leopold II. of Tuscany; Adelgunda, who married Francis V., Duke of Modena; Hildegarde, who married the Archduke Albert of Austria; Alexander, who is unmarried; and Adalbert, who married Amalia, daughter of the Infant of Spain, Don Francisco de Paula.

Maximilian II. was unwilling to promote the union of Germany, which was considered by the governments both of Bavaria and Württemberg as only Prussian supremacy. Maximilian also refused to be a party to the treaty of London, in 1852, which undertook to regulate the peaceable union of the Schleswig-Holstein duchies with the crown of Denmark, and on the death of Frederic he declared in favor of the succession of the Duke of Augustenburg, whose rights he was ready to defend with all his power. In 1862 his brother, King Otho of Greece, returned to Bavaria. The equivocal position in which Otho was placed, in 1853, between the allied powers on the one hand, and his subjects, whose sympathies were strongly in favor of Russia, on the other, greatly increased the difficulties of his situation. His council, too, was composed of men unable or unwilling to support him, and his position became year by year more and more difficult. The strong pro-Russianism of his queen, Frederica Amelia of Oldenburg, rendered her for some time a favorite; but the belief that Otho's absolute measures were due to her instigation turned the tide of popular hatred so strongly against her that attempts were made on her life. At length a formidable insurrection broke out, and, to avoid the effusion of blood, Otho

* From the coronation of Louis I., in October, 1825, until his resignation, in March, 1848, he expended—

For architecture	8,390,776 florins.
" sculpture and painting	1,465,391 "
" furniture	655,672 "
" general advancement of art	753,150 "

His residence in Munich, after his resignation, was the palace of Wittelsbach; his two favorite summer residences were the castles of Ludwigshöhe, in the Palatinate, on the left bank of the Rhine, and Leopoldskrone, in Salzburg. He spent a third of his income in charity, making no distinction on account of age, sex, rank, or religion. He usually traveled a great deal, and there are few towns or villages in Bavaria which have not reaped their share of his attention and liberality. He died at Nice, February 29, 1868, aged eighty-two.

and his wife returned to Bavaria. Otho died at Bamberg in 1867, leaving no children.

The National Assembly elected Prince Alfred of England for their king. On the refusal of this prince to accept the throne, their choice fell on Prince William of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Glucksburg, the second son of Christian IX., King of Denmark, who, under the title of *George I.*, King of the Hellenes, in October, 1863, assumed the functions of royalty. In 1867, King George married Olga, eldest daughter of the Grand Duke Constantine of Russia.

Maximilian II. of Bavaria died in 1864. His wife was Mary, Princess of Prussia.

Louis II. succeeded his father, Maximilian. The measures of government since his accession have assumed a liberal tendency; one of the most marked was the law for a full amnesty to all the Bavarians and Germans implicated in the insurrection in the Palatinat in 1849.

Nicholas I.—The influence of Nicholas I. on the affairs of Europe from 1830 to 1840 was not very conspicuous. After crushing Poland, he drew closer his alliance with Austria and Prussia. In 1844 he paid a visit to Queen Victoria, and subsequently he visited the Emperor of Austria, and, in 1846, Pope Gregory XVI. He abstained from interfering during the political excitement which preceded and followed the French revolution of 1848, except in the Danubian principalities, until his assistance was invoked by Francis Joseph against the Hungarians, whose revolution was crushed by the aid of Russian troops, Görgey surrendering his army at discretion to the Russian general Rüdiger, acting under the command of Paskiewitch, at Vilagos, in August, 1849. In the East, Nicholas followed the traditions of his house in his wars of conquest in Persia, the Caucasus, and Turkey. His ambition of gaining preponderance in Turkey was constantly perceptible during his reign, and led, in 1853, on occasion of the controversy about the guardianship of the Holy Places at Jerusalem and the protectorate over the Danubian principalities, to the rupture with England and France which resulted in the Crimean War. In the spring of 1853 he had an interview with the Emperor of Austria at Olmütz; but subsequently, during the war, the latter concluded a treaty with the allies, occupied the Danubian principalities, and concentrated a large army in Galicia. Nicholas was left alone to fight the combined armies of France, England, Sardinia, and Turkey. The repeated defeats and losses of his formidable armies and fleets produced a deep effect upon his powerful constitution, and hastened his death, the more immediate cause of which was atrophy of the lungs. It

was not till February 28, 1855, that his state was considered very serious, but from that time he grew rapidly worse. On the 1st of March he calmly received the report of the physicians in regard to his critical condition, and took the last sacraments early the next morning. He then took leave of the Empress, his children, and grandchildren, and blessed each one of them with a firm voice. He next sent for Counts Orloff and Adlerberg, and Prince Dolgoruki, thanked them for their fidelity, and bade them farewell. Subsequently he took leave of the servants immediately about his person, on which occasion he was much affected. Last of all, Madame Rohrbeck, the lady-in-waiting of the Empress, was sent for, whom he begged never to quit her mistress. While his father-confessor was speaking to him, he took the Empress's hand and put it into the priest's. After this he lost his speech for awhile, during which time he was engaged in prayer, and crossed himself repeatedly. Almost the last articulate words that the Emperor spoke to his wife were, *Dites à Fritz* (the Empress's brother, Frederic William IV. of Prussia) *de rester toujours le même pour la Russie, et de ne pas oublier les paroles de papa*,—"Tell Fritz to remain always the same to Russia, and not to forget the words of papa." Nicholas was of a commanding presence, and the glance of his large, clear, cold, blue-greenish eyes pierced through and through. No Muscovite sovereign ever succeeded in inspiring his subjects with a more fanatical attachment to his person; and wherever the lofty stature and imperial port of Nicholas appeared, he was hailed as a demi-god rather than a man. His pride rose with his power, and at times he seemed possessed of almost superhuman greatness. Besides his eldest son and successor, Alexander II., his children are, Maria, widow of the Duke of Leuchtenberg (son of Eugene Beauharnais); Olga, wife of the King of Würtemberg; Constantine, high-admiral; Nicholas; and Michael. The widow of Nicholas died in St. Petersburg, November 1, 1860.

Alexander II., Emperor of Russia, was born in April, 1818. He was carefully educated by his father, Nicholas, who professed himself delighted with the manifestations of "true Russian spirit" in his son. At sixteen he was declared of age, made commandant of the Lancers of the Guard, Hetman of the Cossacks, first aide-de-camp of the Emperor, and subjected daily to a life of manœuvring, reviewing, and military parade, which at last seriously injured his health. He then traveled through Germany to recruit his energies, and, while there, concluded a marriage with the Princess Maria, daughter of the Grand Duke of Darmstadt, in 1841. He now vigorously applied himself to

his duties as chancellor of the University of Finland. By his dexterous and subtle manners he insinuated himself into the affections of the Finns, and weakened their love of independence. He founded a chair of the Finnish language and literature, patronized the academy for the culture of Finnish literature, and defrayed the expenses of remote explorations undertaken by their *savans*, such as Cygnæus, Wallin, and Castren. In 1850 he visited Southern Russia, Nicolaïeff, Sebastopol, Teflis, Eriwan, etc. It is said that he witnessed with regret the attitude which his father assumed towards Europe, and that he altogether disapproved of the Crimean War. On his accession to the throne, March 2, 1855, he found himself in a very critical position. He had two parties to conciliate at home,—the old Muscovite party, blindly zealous for war, and the more peaceable and intelligent portion of the nation, who possessed his personal sympathies. He pursued a course calculated to encourage both; spoke of adhering to the policy of his “illustrious ancestors,” and at the same time concluded peace. Since then, he has shown a strong desire to purge the internal administration of its impurities; he has sharply rebuked the corruption of functionaries, and severely punished some as a warning to the rest. An honorable recognition has been given to public instruction, which he has freed from military influence where it absurdly existed, as in the Law School of St. Petersburg, and has placed it under his own direct and personal superintendence. His moderation even stimulated the hopes of the Poles. By a ukase of May 27, 1856, he granted permission to return home to all Polish exiles who were willing to express repentance for the past; but though desirous of preserving the nationality of Poland, he will not have it separated from the “great Russian family.” The grandest achievement of his reign, however, as yet, is the emancipation of the Russian serfs in 1861, and of the Polish serfs in 1864. An attempt was made to assassinate him at Paris, in June, 1867, while on a visit to Napoleon III.

FRANCE.

In 1848, France adopted a republican constitution, and proceeded to elect a president to hold the executive power for four years. There were six candidates, Lamartine, Ledru Rollin, Raspail, Generals Charnier and Cavaignac, and Louis Napoleon, strong in the prestige of a name, and hailed by the people as the representative of that world-renowned Emperor whom France can never forget. The result of the election surprised every one. Seven and a half millions of votes were polled in the nation, and of these five and a half millions were cast

for Louis Napoleon, who was inaugurated president on the 20th of December. Louis Napoleon, the son of Louis Bonaparte and Hortense Beauharnais, the King and Queen of Holland, was born in the palace of the Tuileries, April 20, 1808, and being the first prince of the Napoleonic dynasty born under the imperial régime, and the only one living at the time of his election as President of the French Republic, he considered himself, and was acknowledged, as the legitimate representative of the Emperor Napoleon, and the heir to his empire. The constitution of 1848 provided that it might be revised by a vote of three-fourths of the Assembly during the last year of the presidential term, and that the president should be ineligible to re-election until after an interval of four years. Early in 1851 the question of revision was brought before the Assembly, and soon the strife of parties was fast bringing matters to a crisis that would probably have ended in anarchy and civil war, when suddenly, unexpectedly, and quietly, Louis Napoleon put forth his hand, grasped the reins of power, and, crushing the constitution, overwhelmed all opposition to his will. Again the votes of the nation were taken, when the official returns showed nearly seven and a half millions in his favor, and but little more than half a million against him. It intrusted the government to *Louis Napoleon* for ten years. He was an Emperor in all but name; and before a year had passed he assumed that title, apparently with the consent and by the desire of the nation. Napoleon's first step after securing the imperial throne was the consummation of a marriage, by which his family might be perpetuated; and with this view the ambassadors at the several European courts were directed to make proposals for negotiating a match. For some unexplained reason he was met with a refusal on every hand, and therefore selected for himself a Spanish lady, Mlle. Eugenie de Montijo, Countess de Teba, and the marriage took place in January, 1853. The beginning of this year was noted for the dissensions between Russia and Turkey in relation to the guardianship of the “Holy Places,”—the Porte considering the claim of the Czar to exercise a protectorate over the Greek Christians in the Turkish dominions as an infringement of her sovereign rights. By the advice of the British and French ministers, the demands of the Czar were rejected. At first the Turks were successful in several battles, but a Turkish fleet at Sinope, on the Black Sea, was completely destroyed by a Russian naval force, and the admiral taken prisoner. The Western powers were aroused, and the French and English squadrons were ordered into the Black Sea, to protect the Turks; and in April, 1854, ninety thousand French and British troops

set out for the Danube under the command of Marshal St. Arnaud and Lord Raglan. The most powerful fleet ever equipped was dispatched to the Baltic under the command of Sir Charles Napier. The allies landed in the Crimea, and defeated the Russians at Alma. Balaklava and Inkermann followed, and then siege was laid to Sebastopol.

In March, 1855, the Emperor Nicholas died, and the Grand Duke Alexander, who succeeded him, announced his intention of carrying out his father's policy. The siege of Sebastopol occupied twelve months, and more than one hundred thousand men perished by wounds and disease within and before its walls. It was during this war that Florence Nightingale rendered such essential service to the sick and wounded soldiers, that her name will go down to posterity among those of the greatest philanthropists the world has known. An armistice was proclaimed between the opposing armies early in 1856, and a few weeks after, the plenipotentiaries of Great Britain, France, Russia, Austria, Sardinia, and Turkey assembled in Paris and settled on the terms of a treaty of peace, which was signed in March, 1856. The first point guaranteed the neutralization of the Black Sea, all the Russian forts and arsenals on which were to be destroyed. By the second, Russia gave up all pretension to interference with the internal administration of the Turkish government. The third point guaranteed the right of vessels of all nations to navigate the Danube. The fourth secured to the Christian subjects of the Sultan certain immunities and privileges. The fifth stipulated that Nicolaïeff should be dismantled, and made certain regulations concerning the Aland Islands, Ismail, and Bomarsund. The treaty was signed with an eagle's quill, elegantly mounted with gold and gems, which was then presented to the Empress Eugenie, who had expressed a desire to preserve it as a memorial of the event. A discharge of one hundred and one guns at the Invalides proclaimed the tidings of peace to the delighted inhabitants of the French capital, who recalled to mind the fact that on that day forty-two years previously the battle of Paris was fought, and that on the following day the Russians dictated terms of peace in the place where now their ambassadors came to crave it. The alliance between France and England had rendered Napoleon III. so popular in the latter country that, in 1855, he and the Empress Eugenie paid a visit to Queen Victoria in her own dominions, where he was received with great enthusiasm. The pleasure of the Emperor was somewhat damped shortly after his return home by an attempt to assassinate him while riding near the Barrière de l'Etoile. A few months subsequently the British queen returned the visit of her imperial neighbor, when the

great centre of modern civilization, luxury, art, science, and fashion exhausted all her resources in endeavoring to delight the royal visitor. On the 14th of March, 1855, the Empress Eugenie gave birth to a son, an event which was hailed throughout France with the most extravagant demonstrations of joy. In September, 1857, a formal interview took place at Stuttgart between the French and Russian Emperors, at which the Russian Empress and the Queen of Greece were present. The conference was held at the palace of the King of Würtemberg, and continued four days. It is understood that one of the points settled was a definition of the limits within which Russia and Great Britain will in future be permitted to extend their Eastern conquests. In January, 1858, as the carriage containing the Emperor and Empress of France was approaching the Italian opera-house, three hollow projectiles, aimed at his person, burst beneath his feet, without injury to either Napoleon or Eugenie, but killing and wounding many persons who surrounded the imperial carriage. The parties who perpetrated this dastardly outrage were Italian refugees, named Orsini and Pierri, who were immediately seized, and shortly after executed. Great offense was given to the liberal party in England by the measures taken by the French government to guard against further attempts to assassinate the Emperor, and Lord Palmerston having been censured for too much subserviency to the dictation of Louis Napoleon in relation to these measures, his lordship resigned his position as prime minister to quell the storm of popular indignation. However, the good understanding between the two nations was not materially disturbed; and Queen Victoria was present at the ceremonies consequent upon the opening of the great basin in the harbor of Cherbourg, France. On the 4th of August, 1858, the Queen of England and Prince Albert were entertained on board the French man-of-war *Bretagne* by the Emperor and Empress; afterwards the royal party landed, and inspected the fortifications. Her majesty and the prince consort departed on the 5th, under a triple salute; and the fêtes, which were continued until the 8th, were closed by the inauguration of the statue of Napoleon. A marriage was negotiated between Prince Napoleon, a cousin of the Emperor, and the Princess Clotilda, daughter of the King of Sardinia, an avowed antagonist of Austria on the question of Italian independence.

AUSTRIA.

Francis Joseph, the reigning Emperor of Austria, born August 18, 1830, is the eldest son of the Archduke Francis Charles, and nephew of the Emperor Ferdinand I. He was educated under the care of

Count Bombelles, and was early inspired with ambition by his mother, the Archduchess Sophia, daughter of Maximilian Joseph, King of Bavaria, and sister of the Queens of Prussia and Saxony,—a handsome, energetic woman, who possessed more influence and enterprising spirit than either the Emperor Ferdinand or her husband, the heir-presumptive to the throne. Like his uncle Ferdinand, he was taught to speak the various languages of his polyglot empire,—the German, Hungarian, Sclavonian, Latin, Wallachian, Turkish, modern Greek, Italian, and French; he also became a skillful rider, and was fond of military displays. Sent to Pesth, in 1847, to install his cousin Stephen as Palatine of Hungary, he spoke Hungarian to the assembled nobles, and even gained some popularity. This, however, was of short duration. The revolutions of 1848 having brought the Austrian Empire to the brink of dissolution, his mother became the leading spirit in the counter-revolutionary plots which saved it. Francis Joseph was sent to the army of Italy, and was favorably mentioned in some reports of Radetzky. Lombardy having been reconquered by that general, Prague and Vienna subdued by Windischgrätz, and the Hungarians defeated before Vienna, it seemed to the Archduchess Sophia that the moment had arrived for completing her work. Francis Joseph was declared of age December 1, 1848, at the temporary court of Olmütz, and on the following day his father resigned his right to the succession, and the Emperor his crown, in favor of the youthful prince. Hungary had still to be conquered, and a constituent Austrian parliament was assembled at Kremsir. The young Emperor in his inaugural proclamation promised a constitutional, progressive, and liberal reign. Its beginning was successful. The Hungarians under Görgey retreated before Windischgrätz, giving up Presburg, Raab, Buda, and Pesth; Guyon and Perczel were routed; Schlick was victorious in the north of Hungary. The battle of Kápolna, which was announced by Prince Windischgrätz as a decisive victory over the united main army of the rebels, was believed to have given the finishing blow to the revolution in Hungary. On receiving this news, the Emperor dissolved the Austrian parliament, ordered the arrest of its liberal members, and promulgated a new constitution of his own. But on the very next morning the victory of Damjanics at Szolnok destroyed the delusions of Windischgrätz, and now the imperial army suffered defeat after defeat in Hungary and Transylvania. Radetzky, however, was again victorious over Charles Albert in Italy. To subdue Hungary, foreign aid was necessary. Francis Joseph, therefore, went to Warsaw to invoke the assistance of the Emperor Nicholas. This was granted, and Hungary was invaded

from every quarter. Francis Joseph himself went for some time to that country, and was present at the capture of Raab. After the fall of the revolution, its leaders who had surrendered were severely punished. One day witnessed the execution of Count Batthyanyi, the Hungarian Egmont, at Pesth, and of thirteen generals at Arad, all of whom had surrendered. The dungeons of the empire were filled with victims. Görgey alone was spared. Soon after the surrender of Venice and Comorn, which inaugurated the unlimited centralizing sway of the minister of the interior, Bach and Prince Felix Schwarzenberg resumed with new energy the management of foreign affairs. The revolutionary schemes of a German union apart from Austria had been defeated; and now the schemes of Prussia for forming a separate union with a number of smaller German states were discomfited. In October, 1850, Francis Joseph mustered his South German allies at Bregenz, and in November Prussia yielded to their threatening attitude. Austrian influence prevailed in restoring the ancient order in the electorate of Hesse and in Schleswig-Holstein, as well as the ancient federal diet at Frankfort. After the death of Schwarzenberg, who was succeeded by Count Buol-Schauenstein as minister of foreign affairs, Francis Joseph renewed his friendly relations with Frederic William IV. in an interview at Berlin, in December, 1852, which was followed by a treaty of commerce in February, 1853. In the mean time, absolutism was gradually re-established within the empire. The national guards were dissolved, the freedom of the press was put down, and, finally, the constitution itself, which had been in operation, was abolished January 1, 1852.

The unfavorable reception which the Emperor met with in Hungary, on a journey undertaken in the autumn of the same year, proved that that country felt it was treated like a conquered province. An outbreak at Milan, in 1853, which was suppressed by Radetzky, evinced the revolutionary spirit of Lombardy. In the same year, while walking on the public promenade of Vienna, the Emperor was furiously attacked with a knife by a young Hungarian tailor, named Libényi, who had for months meditated and coolly prepared for this deed. The wound inflicted was regarded as threatening to the life, and afterwards to the sight, of the monarch, who, however, slowly recovered. Libényi, who had been disarmed with difficulty, died on the gallows protesting his fidelity to republicanism and Hungary. A few months after, the Emperor Nicholas paid Francis Joseph a visit at Olmütz, but the attitude of the latter in the war in Turkey, which soon followed, and during which he concluded a treaty with the allies, in 1854, occupied the Danubian

principalities, and concentrated a large army in Galicia, was far from satisfying either Russia or her enemies. The treaty of Paris, in 1856, which terminated the great struggle, was signed on the part of Austria by Buol and Hübner. The expenses of all these diplomatic and military undertakings were met by means of extravagant and often violent financial operations. In April, 1854, Francis Joseph married Elizabeth, daughter of the Bavarian Duke Maximilian Joseph of Zweibrücken-Birkenfeld, who, in 1855, bore him a daughter, Sophia; in 1856, another, Gisela; and in 1858, a son, Rudolph. The first-born child died during a second imperial journey through Hungary, in 1857, at Buda. In October of the same year, Francis Joseph received a visit at Vienna from Alexander II. of Russia, which quieted the apprehensions caused by a preceding interview of the same monarch with Napoleon III. at Stuttgart. While Austrian diplomacy was thus successful in its various operations, it was most effectually active in Italy. A concordat concluded with the See of Rome, in 1855, conferred extraordinary rights upon the Roman Catholic bishops and the Jesuits, and private treaties with Tuscany, Parma, and Modena, made Austrian influence predominant in the peninsula.

When *Charles Albert*, King of Sardinia, espoused the cause of the revolted Lombards, in 1848, and was defeated by Radetzky in a pitched battle at Novara, he abdicated in favor of his son, *Victor Emmanuel II.*,* went to Portugal, and died there of a broken heart. The young king sued for peace, which was granted on condition that he should not intermeddle with the affairs of Austrian Italy, nor advance beyond a certain point for ten years,—from 1849 to 1859. The stipulated time having elapsed, Victor Emmanuel was not only making active preparations for war, but had secured the aid of France. The immediate cause of hostilities seems to have been the extensive armaments of France and Sardinia, which Russia proposed to stop by an adjustment of the difficulty through the medium of a conference of the great powers of Europe. The British government, with the concurrence of the French, presented to Francis Joseph four points as bases of negotiation, which the latter professed his willingness to accept, with certain modifications, but insisted upon the immediate disarming of Sardinia. This being unanimously objected to by the other powers, Francis Joseph suggested, as a substitute, a general and immediate disarmament of all the powers. The British cabinet proposed that the principle be admitted, and that its execution be regulated by a commission, in which

* Victor Emmanuel married the Archduchess Adelaide of Austria in 1842.

Sardinia should be represented; and also that the Italian states should be admitted to a participation in the congress of the five powers.

To these propositions France, Russia, Prussia, and Sardinia acceded; but Austria demurred, and insisted that Sardinia should disarm at once, to which the other powers would not consent. Austria then sent to Sardinia her ultimatum, dated April 21, 1859, which contained a peremptory demand for the disbanding of her Italian volunteers, and allowing but three days for a reply, which, if adverse, would be followed by the immediate commencement of hostilities. Victor Emmanuel refused to comply, and convened the chambers, who invested him with dictatorial powers. Simultaneously with the last demand, Austria dispatched eighty thousand troops to Italy, in addition to those already there; and on the 26th of April three divisions of the Austrian army, one hundred and twenty thousand strong, crossed the Ticino, and invaded Sardinia. A strong feeling in favor of Sardinia existed throughout Italy; and early in April, the Grand Duke of Tuscany, rather than embark in a war against Austria, to which he was urged by the Marquis of Lajatico and the officers of his army, left his dominions. When the tidings of the Austrian demand upon Sardinia were received in Paris, Count Walewski presented to the Corps Législatif a manifest, drawn up by order of Louis Napoleon, which, after giving an account of the proceedings that had taken place, concluded thus: "In presence of this state of things, if Sardinia is menaced, if, as everything leads it to be presumed, her territory is invaded, France cannot hesitate to respond to the appeal of a nation, her ally, to which she is bound by common interests and traditional sympathies, regenerated by a recent confraternity in arms, and by the union contracted between the two reigning houses." By the rapidity of her movements, Austria evidently hoped to annihilate the army of the Sardinians before the arrival of the French troops; but the latter were pushed forward with such dispatch, across the Alps by land, and by sea to Genoa, that in a few days the allies were fully as strong as the Austrians. The latter, after advancing about forty miles into the Sardinian territory, spread themselves over the most fertile provinces of Piedmont, and levied exhausting contributions upon the inhabitants. On the 10th of May, Napoleon III., confiding the regency to the Empress, set out for Italy to take command of the army in person, and arrived at Genoa on the 12th, where he was welcomed with the utmost enthusiasm. His first "order of the day" resembled in its style the addresses by which the first Napoleon was wont to excite the ardor and arouse the enthusiasm of his soldiers. But the allies

were prevented from advancing in force by the lack of full supplies, unfavorable weather, and inundations, so that, beyond unimportant skirmishes of advanced parties, no actual engagement took place until May 20, when a severe action was fought at Montebello, on the very spot where, June 9, 1800, the Austrians were defeated by Marshal Lannes. General Garibaldi, with a force consisting chiefly of Italian volunteers, was sent northward to carry the war into Lombardy; and, crossing the frontier, he took possession of Varese, where he was attacked by an Austrian force, which he repulsed. After a severe fight, he entered Como, and the Austrians retreated to Camerletta, where the combat was again renewed, with the result of compelling the Austrians again to retreat towards Milan, and all the steamers on Lake Maggiore fell into the hands of the allies.

Francis Joseph now left Vienna for the seat of war. Victor Emmanuel drove the Austrians from Palestro, and General Niel entered Novara. Then followed the great battle of Magenta, in which the Austrians lost twenty thousand in killed and wounded, and seven thousand prisoners. Immediately after this battle Napoleon and Victor Emmanuel entered Milan, which had been evacuated by the Austrians, and were enthusiastically received by the inhabitants. Napoleon issued a proclamation to the Italians, defining his position and promising them national independence; and Victor Emmanuel also published a proclamation to the people of Lombardy, announcing the union of that country with Sardinia. In June, the battle of Melgnano was gained by the allies, and two weeks afterwards the terrible battle of Solferino took place, which raged from five o'clock in the morning until a late hour in the afternoon, when the Austrians began to retreat along their entire line, favored by a fearful storm, and when the weather cleared up they had disappeared. On the 8th of July, an armistice was concluded between the belligerents, to continue until the 15th of August; and on the 11th of the same month, Napoleon announced to his army that a treaty of peace had been signed between Francis Joseph and himself, on the following basis: 1, an Italian confederation to be formed, under the honorary presidency of the Pope; 2, Lombardy to be ceded to France in trust for Victor Emmanuel; 3, Venice to be retained by Austria, but to form an integral part of the Italian confederation. The interview between the two Emperors took place at Villafranca, and was the result of a letter from Napoleon, to which Francis Joseph returned a courteous reply. The treaty was concluded at the time without any reference to the other powers of Europe, and created some dissatisfaction, particularly among the

Sardinians, whose king did not hesitate to express his regret. Count Cavour, the Sardinian prime minister, immediately resigned his office. This peace of Villafranca cut Italy to the heart, but enabled the Emperor to return to Paris with the prestige of a conqueror; after which he took the necessary steps for the convention of a European congress at Zurich, to settle the minutiae of a permanent treaty of peace; but he was bitterly disappointed when Italy pronounced for a united nationality under Victor Emmanuel. In 1861, Napoleon induced England and Spain to join him in an invasion of Mexico, and in a letter to General Forey announced his self-imposed mission to reconstruct the Latin race in America and rebuild the fallen edifice of its power. At that time there was no favorable opportunity for Napoleon to interfere actively in European affairs. The American civil war absorbed the attention of the older nations, and they were more vitally interested in its results than was then apparent on the surface. This Mexican expedition was a threat, an impertinence, an indirect interference in American affairs. It was meant to be the first step towards an intervention on behalf of the South. The dismemberment of the United States would have been the triumph of dynastic ideas throughout the world, and there was nothing apparently which Napoleon more ardently wished. The withdrawal of England and Spain from the expedition was so quietly and respectfully accomplished that the good understanding of France with those nations was not disturbed. The crown of Mexico was offered to Maximilian, brother of Francis Joseph. The French army under Bazaine won a few easy triumphs in the country, and the most that was possible was made out of Maximilian's temporary investiture with the purple in 1864. Two things baffled the nicely-arranged plans of the French Emperor, the Proclamation of Emancipation, issued by Abraham Lincoln, declaring "forever free all the slaves in the States in rebellion," and the steady friendship of Russia. The moral support of the English masses, and the consequent caution of the English government, saved the United States from what was, for a short time, a very imminent danger. In 1864, Francis Joseph co-operated with William I. of Prussia against Schleswig-Holstein; and in 1866 he was at war with Prussia, and was defeated at Sadowa with great loss. In the same year he ceded Venetia to Napoleon, and, greatly humiliated, was by the treaty of Prague excluded from the German Confederation. The civil war in the United States ended in the triumph of the North, in 1865. In 1867, Maximilian, Emperor of Mexico, deserted by his foreign allies, was defeated and shot. This was the severest blow which the dynastic

system had received since the French Revolution,—this the Nemesis which overtook Napoleon III. three years afterwards. The heavy blows of fortune caused Francis Joseph to listen to judicious counselors, and, granting autonomy to Hungary, he was, with extraordinary pomp, crowned its king, and the loyalty of that nation was secured. He promulgated one of the most liberal constitutions of Continental Europe, guaranteeing freedom of religion and conscience, and the freedom of the press.

Maximilian, Emperor of Mexico, was the son of the Archduke Francis Charles and of Sophia of Bavaria. He was born on the 6th of July, 1832. In 1846 he entered the Austrian navy. On the 27th of July, 1859, he married the unfortunate Maria Carlotta, daughter of Leopold I. of Belgium. He was appointed admiral of the Austrian navy in 1859, and retained this position until his acceptance of the Mexican crown. During his administration of this high office in his own country, he introduced many important reforms in the navy, and he left his post amid universal regret.

Napoleon III. wrote to General Forey that it was not to recover a paltry debt of a few millions, but "to restore to the Latin race on the other side of the Atlantic all its strength and prestige." "It was not for the interests of France that the United States should take possession of the whole Gulf of Mexico and be the sole dispensers of the produce of the New World." To carry out these ideas was Maximilian's calling in Mexico. It was a year and a half after the invaders landed before they reached the city of Mexico. It was in December, 1861, when, after the disasters of Bull Run and Ball's Bluff, loyal hopes had sunk, and foreigners looked forward with some show of reason to a dismemberment of the great North American Union, that France, having induced England and Spain to join her, and taking advantage of our calamities, entered on the invasion of Mexico. At first the avowed intention of these allies was to secure the payment of interest on debts due by Mexico to these three invading powers, and to obtain acknowledgment of certain claims for damage, suffered chiefly by French subjects. The debt to England was about sixty million dollars; that to Spain, ten million dollars; and that to France, including all claims having a color of justice, probably less than five million dollars. Guarantees were demanded. Mexico showed a willingness to give them; the three powers protesting meanwhile, by public proclamation, and in an article of the treaty of the Soledad, that they would never interfere with the domestic institutions of Mexico, nor attempt anything against the independence of the Mexican Republic.

Three or four months passed in preliminary negotiations, and the matter appeared on the eve of satisfactory adjustment, when suddenly new instructions reached the French commission. Napoleon had determined to march to Mexico. Thereupon the Spanish commissioner, the well-known General Prim, somewhat vainglorious and haughty, but with that sense of honor on which a Castilian prides himself, protested against this violation of public faith. The English commissioner joined in the protest. The French commissioner coolly replied that he had his instructions, and would act upon them. On the receipt of this reply, in May, Spain and England withdrew, and France alone, in violation of solemn promises, persisted in her course. Heavy reinforcements were sent on, and in November, 1862, there were forty-two thousand French troops in Mexico. In June, 1863, the French entered the city of Mexico. Six days later General Forey issued a decree, designating twenty-five Mexicans a "Superior Junta," who were to associate with them two hundred and forty-five more, of their own selection; these formed the "Assembly of Notables," who were to determine the future government of Mexico.

They met in July, 1863, and at their *first session, and without a single word of debate*, decreed as follows: "First. The Mexican nation adopts as its form of government a limited hereditary monarchy, with a Roman Catholic prince. Second. The sovereign shall take the title of Emperor of Mexico. Third. The imperial crown of Mexico is offered to His Imperial and Royal Highness the Archduke Ferdinand Maximilian of Austria, for himself and his descendants. Fourth. If the Archduke of Austria should not take possession of the throne, the Mexican nation relies on the good will of His Majesty Napoleon III. to indicate for it another Catholic prince." The last article was unnecessary: the crown did not go a-begging. In June, 1864, Maximilian ascended the throne. The United States government officially declared that the Austrian archduke should never be recognized by the United States as Emperor of Mexico. In truth, the only chance he ever had was in the success of the Southern secession. The Confederacy, once established, would doubtless have recognized him.

A few months later, at the opening of the French chambers, the Emperor gravely informed those bodies that there had been established, under French auspices, in Mexico, "a government founded upon the will of the people,—a government which is becoming consolidated, and the malcontents, vanquished and dispersed, have no longer any leader." The French Emperor little expected, when he penned these words, that in two years eleven months and three days from the time

his protégé ascended the Mexican throne, the leader Juarez, whose existence he thus officially denied, would capture that protégé, and extinguish the last lingering spark of imperialism on Mexican soil. Juarez captured Maximilian, and ordered him to be shot. He was executed July 19, 1867.

At the Grand Exposition in Paris, when Mr. Hughes, the inventor of the printing telegraph, was called up to receive his prize, the Emperor took his hand, making him an exception to all the other recipients of medals. Mr. Hughes, when he touched the imperial fingers, slipped into his hand a little bit of paper, containing the last message by the cable, and printed by the machine for the invention of which he was just being decorated. It contained these words: "Maximilian is shot. His last words were, *Poor Carlotta!*" Napoleon III. read the telegram, and immediately gave evidence of fearful agitation.

ITALY.

Victor Emmanuel II. from the beginning of his reign adhered to a liberal policy, and surrounded himself with the most approved members of the constitutional party,—D'Azeglio, Cavour, and La Marmora. He aimed at strengthening his government by a system of gradual reform in the internal administration, and at restoring Sardinia to that rank among the European powers which she had lost by her last reverses. Improvements took place in all the branches of government, industry was fostered, and commercial treaties were concluded with foreign nations. Abroad, especially by joining the Anglo-French alliance in the Crimean War, Sardinia acquired even more than her former political importance; and when, in 1859, she was attacked by Austria, she not only found France by her side, but was supported by public opinion generally, and even by former republicans, like Garibaldi, as the champion of Italian independence. In a short campaign Lombardy was conquered. The Peace of Zurich, however, left many questions of importance undecided. Napoleon favored the formation of an Italian federation, while Victor Emmanuel aimed at the consolidation of the whole peninsula into a single kingdom. Assisted by Garibaldi and the people, who in various parts of Italy rose in his favor, he energetically pursued this purpose.

In January, 1860, Count Cavour resumed the ministry of foreign affairs, and the premiership of a new cabinet. Parma and Modena were at once annexed. In March, the people of Tuscany and the Æmilian provinces of the Papal States were called upon to decide by vote whether they would be annexed to the constitutional monarchy of

Victor Emmanuel II., or form a separate kingdom. An overwhelming majority was given in favor of annexation, and the title of Kingdom of Sardinia was changed to that of Kingdom of Italy. Soon afterwards Savoy and the county of Nice, which had been ceded to France by the treaty of Turin, sanctioned the transfer by a nearly unanimous vote, and were taken possession of by the delegates of Napoleon. An insurrection having broken out in Sicily, Garibaldi, who had resigned his rank as a general and his seat as a deputy, assembled volunteers in and around Genoa, and made preparations to assist the insurgents; and the ministry, in spite of the remonstrances of several of the European governments, declined to interfere.

Ferdinand II., who succeeded his father, Francis I., followed in the footsteps of his grandfather, Ferdinand I.; the slightest political disorder was severely punished, what remained of political liberties was abolished, and the people were kept in abject ignorance. In 1847, under the hopes inspired by the election of Pope Pius IX., revolutionary movements broke out in Sicily. In 1848, the people of Palermo rose in arms, and worsted the royal troops, driving them into the citadel; the insurrection spread like fire through the island, and extended to the continent. The king, frightened by popular manifestations in and around his capital, changed his ministry, granted a constitution, established universal suffrage, and placed General Pepe at the head of an army that was to uphold the cause of Italian independence; but he secretly prepared the means of overpowering the revolutionists as soon as circumstances would permit, and for that purpose reinforced his Swiss troops. A rising in Naples was quelled after several bloody encounters, and, Ferdinand following up his success, within a few weeks Sicily was again in his power, General Pepe was recalled, and the sworn constitution was suspended. Many were the sentences of death against political leaders, and those who escaped the gallows were confined in prison. All was silent around the king, who, by the merciless cannonades he ordered, won the surname of Bomba. With the aid of his mercenary troops and the lazzaroni, whom he treated with marked favor, he was enabled to spend his latter years in comparative tranquillity.

His son, *Francis II.*, followed at first the same policy, but failed to secure the same result. Sicily first claimed its independence, and Garibaldi went to aid the insurgents. In less than two months, Francis II. saw that Sicily was lost beyond recovery; but he still hoped he could propitiate the Neapolitans. Garibaldi landed near Reggio, worsted the troops that opposed him, and soon found himself

master of the southern part of the kingdom. Seeing that it was impossible to remain longer in Naples without imminent danger, Francis left his capital in the afternoon of September 6, and the next morning Garibaldi made a triumphal entry, amid the enthusiastic applause of the people. Meanwhile, Victor Emmanuel had prepared for every emergency; an army, under La Marmora, had been stationed along the Mincio and the Po, to prevent any attack from the Austrians; another, of twenty thousand troops, under Cialdini, kept the frontier on the eastern slope of the Apennines; and a third, of thirty thousand, under Fanti, was concentrated at Arezzo, overlooking the valley of the Tiber. No sooner had Garibaldi entered Naples than Cialdini and Fanti were ordered to move forward. The latter marched towards Perugia, which he entered, while the former, after taking possession of Urbino, advanced towards Ancona, routed the papal troops under Lamoricière, made four thousand prisoners at Loretto, besieged Ancona, where Lamoricière had taken refuge, and forced him to surrender. Garibaldi authorized the dictator, Pallavicino, whom he had appointed, to issue a plebiscite summoning the people of the Two Sicilies to decide upon their annexation to the kingdom of Italy. The vote was taken, and out of one million four hundred and twenty thousand voters, one million three hundred and ten thousand declared for annexation. During this time Fanti and Cialdini had marched their troops into the Abruzzi, and Victor Emmanuel had slowly advanced towards Naples. He met Garibaldi at Teano, and entered Naples, November, 1860, in company with the "liberator," amid popular applause. Umbria and the march of Ancona had also voted for annexation, and Victor Emmanuel found himself the sovereign of a kingdom numbering twenty-two million inhabitants, and, after the surrender of Gaëta, which was obstinately defended by Francis II. until February, 1861, master of all Italy, with the exception of the territory of Rome and the province of Venice. Francis II. went to Rome in the hope of a popular reaction, or foreign intervention in his favor. Count Cavour died in June, 1861, and was succeeded by Baron Ricasoli. In September, 1870, the Italian troops occupied the States of the Church, and in October the vote of the people pronounced for annexation to the kingdom of Italy, and Rome became its capital.

Pius IX., Giovanni Maria Mastai Ferretti, the reigning pontiff, was born at Sinigaglia in 1792. He was originally destined for the military profession, and was sent to Rome to enter the Noble Guard; but symptoms of an epileptic tendency led to his abandoning his intended profession, and, entering an ecclesiastical seminary, he took holy

orders, and for a time exercised his ministry in connection with several works of charity and benevolence in Rome. Afterwards he was sent to South America as "auditor" of Monsignor Mugé, the Vicar-Apostolic of Chili. On his return he became domestic prelate of Leo XII.; and in 1829 he was named Archbishop of Spoleto. He was soon after sent to Naples as nuncio; and in 1840 he was named cardinal, from which date he continued to reside in his see. On the death of Gregory XVI., in 1846, Cardinal Mastai Ferretti was elected by acclamation to succeed him; and having learned by long intercourse with the people of the Legations the prevalence and the causes of discontent, which had been concealed under the repressive system of Gregory, following the direction of the Austrians, by whom a protectorate was exercised, he entered at once on a course of reforms, by which he hoped to establish the papal government on a popular but firm basis. He resolved to extirpate all abuses of administration, financial as well as political, to withdraw as far as possible the restrictions of personal liberty, to secularize in many details the local administration, and to extend the rights of self-government as far as was compatible with the essential institutions of the Roman States. His first step to this end was to grant an amnesty; and this measure, humane and necessary though it was, had the unfortunate result of drawing together into the Roman States a body of men whom an unhappy experience of foreign exile had embittered against the existing order of things, and who had served in foreign revolutions, and, in secret councils which their position had necessitated, an apprenticeship to the arts of political intrigue. For a time the reforming policy of Pius IX. carried with it the affections of the people; but soon he began to fall far short of the expectations he had created. The outbreak of the revolution of February, 1848, precipitated the crisis of popular excitement and popular discontent. Reform assumed the shape of revolution. In November of that year, Count Rossi, whom the Pope had appointed as his minister, was assassinated; violent demonstrations were daily employed to compel the Pope's assent to measures which he repudiated, and he was driven to confine himself a close prisoner in the Quirinal. At length, in December, he fled secretly from Rome and established himself at Gaëta, a Neapolitan sea-port, not far beyond the Roman frontier. A republic was proclaimed in Rome, the provisional heads of which proceeded to a complete and radical remodeling of the civil government of the state. Pius, from his exile, addressed a remonstrance to the various sovereigns. In April, 1849, a French expedition was sent to Civita Vecchia, which eventually advanced

upon Rome, and, after a siege of about thirty days, took possession of that city and established a French army of occupation within the Roman state. The Pope's government was re-established, but he did not return till 1850, when once again he entered upon the administration. In consequence of the unsettled condition of Italy and the failure of many of his early measures of improvement, he declared himself unable to proceed with the reformations which he had contemplated. Afterwards his authority was maintained without much interruption; but it could not be doubted that the discontent with the government still continued, and that if the French army were withdrawn violent changes would be imminent. In consequence of the war for the unification of Italy, the Legations, Ancona, and the remainder of the papal territory, including Rome, have been annexed to the kingdom of Italy, but Pius persistently refused to cede any portion or to enter into any compromise. His ecclesiastical administration was very active, and he proceeded upon the strongest assumption of the right of independent action on the part of the Church. In this view he re-established the hierarchy in England, sanctioned the establishment in Ireland of a Catholic university, and condemned the principles upon which the queen's colleges in that country were constituted. He concluded with Austria a concordat, afterward abrogated, much more favorable to Church authority than the existing ecclesiastical laws had permitted.

In 1854 he issued a decree propounding as a doctrine of the Church the Immaculate Conception of the Blessed Virgin. In 1868 he convened an Ecumenical Council, to meet at Rome, on December 8, 1869, for the purpose of defining the infallibility of the Pope as regards "whatever belongs to faith and morals, or the primacy and teaching authority of Peter," and the relations of the Church to state governments. On July 18, 1870, the council pronounced in favor of the dogma of infallibility, by a vote of five hundred and thirty-three to two. The opposing prelates were Mgr. Riccio, Bishop of Cajazzo, in Italy, and Mgr. Fitzgerald, Bishop of Little Rock, in the United States; but they formally withdrew their negative immediately upon the pronouncement of the dogma by the Pope. The only noted theologian who opposed the decree after its official promulgation was Dr. Döllinger, of Munich, who was excommunicated, April 17, 1871. On the occupation of the States of the Church by the Italian troops, in September, 1870, Pius IX. was relieved from temporal power, and in the same month issued a protest against the acts of the Italian government. On October 2, 1870, the vote of the people was given for annexation to

the kingdom of Italy. By permission of Victor Emmanuel, the Pope took up a residence in the Leonine City, that part of Rome which adjoins St. Peter's.

SAXONY.

John (Nepomuck Maria Joseph) distinguished himself at an early age by his knowledge of Italian literature, and subsequently translated and published a version of the whole "Divina Commedia" of Dante, with critical and historical annotations. He presided for many years over the financial affairs of Saxony, and evinced much ability. His brother, King Frederic Augustus, was thrown from his carriage while traveling in the Tyrol, and died shortly after, leaving no children. John succeeded him on the throne in 1854. He translated some of Bryant's poems into German, and, speaking of our language, said, "Since 1850, at least one-fourth of the trade of Saxony has been with England and America; and now, thank God, every pupil at our lyceums who reaches the second class has to learn to speak English." King John died at his château of Pilnitz, November 11, 1873, aged seventy-two. His widow is Amalia Augusta, daughter of King Maximilian I. of Bavaria. His eldest daughter married the Duke of Genoa, brother of Victor Emmanuel II. His eldest son, Albert (Frederic Augustus), who has just succeeded to the throne, married, in 1853, a daughter of Prince Gustavus Vasa.

ENGLAND.

Victoria.—The French revolution of 1848 occasioned great agitation in England, and a number of persons, called Chartists, made a movement for reform. Their efforts were abortive, and some of the leaders were punished for treasonable practices. In 1854, England took the part of the Turks against Russia, not out of love to the Turks, but because it was feared that if Russia possessed a powerful navy in the Black Sea, with access through the Bosphorus into the Mediterranean, the route of the English to India and the East might at any time be cut off and their rich possessions isolated from the mother-country. France and Sardinia were actuated by similar considerations. This war lasted two years, and Russia was obliged to dismantle the fortress of Sebastopol and open the commerce of the Black Sea to all nations, and both the Russians and the Turks were forbidden to maintain a navy upon its waters. By far the greater part of the glory of the Crimean War fell to the share of the French, and a very natural conse-

quence was a feeling of alarm in England, that Napoleon III., presuming on the inferred superiority of his soldiers, should invade England. The agitation on this subject had become a panic in 1860. In July of that year, Napoleon wrote to his ambassador in London, disclaiming any hostility against England, and all fears of a war at once subsided. In the same year, the Prince of Wales, traveling under the name of Baron Renfrew, visited the United States and Canada. In December, 1861, Prince Albert died at Windsor Castle, to the great grief not only of the royal family, but of the entire British people. This prince was gifted with a handsome figure, was expert in all knightly exercises, well skilled in the sciences connected with statecraft, thoroughly conversant with natural history and chemistry, and displayed great taste for the fine arts, especially painting and music. After his marriage, which was a happy one, he devoted himself to all the interests of the British Empire, and opened for himself an influential sphere of action in the encouragement and promotion of science and art. His sound judgment, excellent example, and beneficial influence will transmit his name to future generations as "Albert the Good."

In July, 1862, the freedom of the city of London was presented to Mr. Peabody, an American banker doing business there, in acknowledgment of a gift from him of seven hundred and fifty thousand dollars for the benefit of the poor in that city. This sum was afterwards increased to nearly two millions of dollars; and when Mr. Peabody died, in 1869, Queen Victoria directed his body to be conveyed to America in an English man-of-war.

The war against secession in the United States proved distressing in the extreme to the cotton-spinners in England, and during the first two years two hundred and seventy-five thousand persons applied for relief. Large sums of money were raised for them both in England and in America, and from the latter country several ship-loads of bread-stuffs were sent in addition. In 1866, the Atlantic cable, connecting the continents of Europe and America, was laid. The original idea was American, and to the spirit and perseverance of an American, Cyrus W. Field, the final success of the undertaking may be largely attributed.

The children of Prince Albert and Queen Victoria are:

1. Victoria Mary, married, in 1858, to Prince Frederic William of Prussia, now Prince Imperial of Germany.
2. Albert Edward, Prince of Wales, married, in 1863, to Princess Alexandra of Denmark.
3. Alice, married, in 1862, to Prince Louis of Hesse-Darmstadt.

4. Alfred, Duke of Edinburgh, Captain in the Royal navy, married, in 1874, to Marie, daughter of the Emperor of Russia.
5. Helena, married, in 1866, to Prince Frederic Christian of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Augustenburg.
6. Louise, married, in 1871, to John, Marquis of Lorne.
7. Arthur, Captain Rifle Brigade.
8. Leopold.
9. Beatrice.

HOUSE OF HOHENZOLLERN.

EMPEROR WILLIAM I. A.D. 1871.



WILLIAM I.

which has since had the honor of conferring a sobriquet upon another renowned warrior of the Hohenzollerns. For nearly four years the prince continued to wear the scarlet dolman and blue pelisse slashed with white of the Rudorfer; but on New Year's Day, 1807, his royal father handed him his first commission as ensign in the first (body) company of the First Prussian Foot Guards, in which his elder brother

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FREDERIC WILLIAM LOUIS, second son of Frederic William III. of Prussia and of Queen Louisa, daughter of the Grand Duke of Mecklenburg-Strelitz, was born on the 23d of March, 1797. He was a weakly, delicate child, and rather small for his age, when he donned his first uniform, a Christmas gift from his father, who presented him, with his brother Frederic William IV., and his cousin, Prince Frederic, — both of the latter being also dressed in full regimentals for the occasion,—to Queen Louisa, as the three youngest recruits of the Prussian army. This first uniform, which the child-prince wore with the greatest imaginable pride and joy, was that of the famous Rudorf (afterwards Ziethen) Regiment of Red Hussars,

EMPEROR WILLIAM I.

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and Prince Frederic of Prussia were already lieutenants; and on Christmas Eve of the same year he was promoted to the latter rank. Early in the spring of 1808, Prince William having attained his eleventh year, Queen Louisa, writing to her father, spoke of her second son in the following terms:

"Our son William—permit me, venerable grandpapa, to introduce your grandchildren to you in their regular order—will turn out, if I am not much mistaken, like his father,—simple, honest, and intelligent. He also resembles him most of all, but will not, I fancy, be so handsome. You see, dear papa, that I am still in love with my husband."

These were prophetic words of the lovely and accomplished queen, whose memory is still worshiped by her only surviving son,—“simple, honest, and intelligent.” The Emperor William has proved to be all these, and more. He has shown fortitude in adversity, self-control in prosperity, courage and wisdom at all times, and an amiability of disposition that has won the heart of every one who has ever enjoyed the privilege of being brought into personal contact with him. His third commission in the Guards is dated May 15, 1812, and his fourth, as captain, October 30 of the same year. A few days after he had received his first epaulette from his father's hand, he left Berlin for his first campaign, and was under fire January 1, 1813, when the allies crossed the Rhine at Mannheim in the teeth of strong French batteries, suffering heavy loss. In February, 1814, the prince distinguished himself at the battle of Bar-sur-Aube by such conspicuous gallantry and heroic indifference to danger that the Emperor Alexander conferred upon him the cross of St. George,—a Russian military order “for valor,”—and his father decorated him, on the 10th of March, with the iron cross, then the most coveted of all the Prussian distinctions. His fifth commission, as major in the Prussian army, bears date May 30, 1814, and a week later he visited London for the first time, in the company of his father, his elder brother, and his cousin Frederic. The royal Prussian warriors were lodged in St. James's Palace, and were entertained with the most splendid hospitality. Frederic William III. was installed at Windsor as a Knight of the Garter, and, with his sons, visited Oxford, went to the Ascot races, and plunged into all the gayeties of a London season,—gayeties to which the young princes, whose lives had hitherto been exclusively devoted to study and military exercises, were altogether unaccustomed, and of which his present majesty retains to this day the liveliest and most agreeable recollection.

Nearly three years later, Prince William was promoted to the rank of colonel, and took command of the first battalion of the First Foot Guards, and in June, 1817, was nominated chief of the Seventh Grenadiers, now the "King's," an honorary command which his majesty still holds. On the 30th of March, 1818, a week after the celebration of his twenty-first birthday, he became a major-general, and was shortly afterwards intrusted by his father with the charge of the whole Prussian military department during the king's absence in Russia. From that time forth Prince William's whole energies, time, and ambition were given to the improvement of the Prussian army, in the organization, drill, uniforming, and arming of which he introduced reform after reform, until he made it what it was when it overthrew the hosts of the two most formidable military powers in Europe. He never meddled with politics, although his well-known staunch conservatism rendered him exceedingly unpopular in the Prussian capital during the *Sturm und Drang* paroxysm in 1848-49,—compelling him to flee for safety to England, where he remained six weeks. In the following year he resumed the command of the army corps at first assigned him. He was a faithful subject—the very model and type of a loyal *Getreuer*—to his father and brother, and he has been the best king that ever sat on a Prussian throne. As husband, father, friend, he is a bright example to his people.

In June, 1829, he married the Princess Augusta, daughter of the Grand Duke of Saxe-Weimar. Two children were born to this alliance,—the present crown prince, and the Princess Louise, now wife of the Grand Duke of Baden. In 1840, his brother, King Frederic William IV., conferred upon him the title of Prince of Prussia, and appointed him governor of Pomerania and president of the state ministry. In 1849 he was designated to suppress the insurrection in the Palatinate, and successfully discharged the duty, and then took up his residence at Coblenz, as governor of Westphalia and the provinces of the Rhine. In 1854, Prince William celebrated his silver wedding, and was on that occasion gazetted lieutenant-general of the infantry. In 1857 he celebrated his fiftieth year of military service. Meantime, his son was betrothed to the eldest daughter of the Queen of England, Victoria, the princess-royal, and the marriage took place in London, January, 1858.

During the dangerous illness of Frederic William IV., in 1858, Prince William undertook the regency, and after the death of the king he ascended the throne of Prussia. The coronation took place at Königsberg, October 18, 1861. It is related that the king himself

took the crown and placed it upon his head with his own hands, saying, "God gives it."

King William was the first to aid the duchies of Schleswig and Holstein in the defense of their rights, which had been repeatedly infringed by Denmark. The Prussian government also succeeded in persuading Austria to share in the undertaking. In January, 1864, the allied armies entered Holstein, under Field-Marshal Wrangel. Prince Frederic Charles gained a victory at Missunde, and the Austrians another at Oberselk, obliging the Danes to abandon the Dane-work. Their rear-guard was overtaken by the Austrians at Oeversee, and defeated. Meantime, the Prussians crossed the Schlei at Arnis and Cappeln, thus enabling the allies to enter Jutland. The Prussian flotilla commanded by Jachmann gained an advantage over the Danish vessels at Rügen. The Düppel intrenchments were stormed by the Prussians, and the Danes driven from the fort Fridericia. While a peace conference was held in London, Herwarth von Bittenfeld conquered the island of Alsen, and Vogel von Falkenstein, with the allied army, took possession of all Jutland. Meantime, an Austrian squadron gained possession of the islands of West Friesland. In October of the same year, peace was concluded at Vienna, and Christian IX. of Denmark ceded the duchies of Schleswig, Holstein, and Lauenburg to Prussia and Austria. In 1865 an agreement was made at Gastein between Prussia and Austria, in consequence of the strife engendered by the Prussians, who were molested in those duchies. Austria then took Holstein, and Prussia Schleswig; and Prussia purchased Lauenburg of Austria for two and a half million Danish dollars.

WAR OF PRUSSIA AND ITALY AGAINST AUSTRIA AND HER GERMAN ALLIES.

The Austrian government was decidedly opposed to any further increase of the power of Prussia, and therefore favored the pretensions of Prince Frederic of Augustenburg to the duchies of Schleswig and Holstein. Lively remonstrances followed, which ended in preparations for war by Austria. In June, 1866, the war began. Italy took part with Prussia, in the hope of getting the Venetian territories. Besides Italy, the small states of North Germany took part with Prussia. On the side of Austria were Hanover, Saxony, Bavaria, Würtemberg, Hesse-Darmstadt, Hesse-Cassel, Nassau, and Baden, the last of which was compelled to join in the contest.

There were three divisions in the Prussian army: the first, under Prince Frederic Charles, numbered one hundred thousand men; the

second, under the crown prince, one hundred and sixteen thousand; and the army of the Elbe, under General Herwarth von Bittenfeld, forty thousand. These grand divisions marched to the frontiers of Saxony and Bohemia. Three smaller divisions were stationed in Wetzlar, Holstein, and Westphalia. King William was commander-in-chief, assisted by General von Moltke, and the Minister of War, Von Roon. The crown prince and Frederic Charles marched into Saxony, and took Dresden. The Saxon army retreated to Bohemia, to join the Austrians. Frederic Charles and the army of the Elbe immediately followed, and invaded Bohemia. Frederic Charles gained victories at Liebenau, Turnau, and Podol over the Austrians, commanded by Clam-Gallas. The crown prince forced his way through the Silesian and Bohemian frontiers at the pass of Nachod. General Steinmetz conquered the Austrians, under Ramming, at Nachod. At the same time General Bonin was checked at Trautenau by the Austrians, under Gablenz. On the same day the army of the Elbe, after the glorious victory of Hühnerwasser, joined the army of Frederic Charles. On the 28th of June, Frederic Charles defeated Clam-Gallas at Münchengrätz, when the Austrians and Saxons withdrew to Gitschin. On that same day Steinmetz won a brilliant victory over the Archduke Ernest at Skalicz, and the Prussian Guards defeated Gablenz. On the 29th the Austrians and Saxons were completely routed at Gitschin; and the crown prince took Königinhof. The Austrians retreated, and concentrated their forces at Königgrätz, under Benedeck, their commander-in-chief. King William joined the army of Frederic Charles, and took the command, with Von Moltke as chief of the general staff. The decisive battle took place at Königgrätz, July 3, under the command of the king. Frederic Charles sustained the shock of the whole Austrian force during the forenoon, until the crown prince attacked the enemy on the left wing and decided the victory. The conquerors took eleven flags, one hundred and seventy-four cannons, and eighteen thousand prisoners. The greater part of the Austrians fled in disorder to Olmütz. The army of the crown prince turned towards Olmütz, and defeated the Austrian rear-guard at Tobitschau; Frederic Charles marched on Brünn, and the army of the Elbe took its way towards Vienna.

The Austrians withdrew troops from Italy, and the Archduke Albert superseded Benedeck in command, while Prague and Brünn were seized by the Prussians. The last victorious contest of the Prussians, under Fransecki, took place at Blumenau, near Presburg. The Prussians were within a few miles of Vienna, when the preliminaries of peace,

under the mediation of France, were signed at the castle of Nicholsburg, the headquarters of the king.

While the grand armies of Prussia were gaining all these victories over the Austrians, General Vogel von Falkenstein marched into Hanover, when King George V., with his army of twenty thousand men, fell back to the south, in order to unite his forces with those of Southern Germany. June 27, he reached Langensalza, where he met nine thousand Prussians under General Flies, who was at first driven back; but he not only recovered himself, but also defeated and surrounded the enemy and forced them to surrender. The capitulation took place on the 29th of June, and King George and his son, the crown prince, were allowed to depart. Von Falkenstein then united the various army corps in the west, as commander of the army of the Main, and marched against the South German allies of Austria. Five days afterwards, Generals Beyer and Goeben defeated the Bavarians, at Hünfeld and Dermbach. Von Falkenstein crossed the Rhön mountains, and Goeben and Beyer conquered the Bavarians at Kissingen and Hammelburg, while Manteuffel was victorious at Waldaschbach and Hausen. Von Falkenstein then turned upon the Würtembergers and Hessians, who were near Aschaffenburg, conquered the Hessians at Frohnhoen and Laufach, the day following defeated the Austrians and Hessians at Aschaffenburg, and then marched against the old imperial city of Frankfort. Von Falkenstein was then appointed to a command in Bohemia. Manteuffel succeeded him, and marched against the Würtembergers and Hessians, defeating them at Tauberbischofshiem, and the Baden troops at Werbach. After the overthrow of these Austrian allies at Gerchsheim, and the Bavarians at Uettingen and Rossbrunn, he besieged the fortress of Marienberg, at Würzburg, and captured it. A suspension of hostilities followed. The Italians, the allies of Prussia, crossed the Mincio, and were defeated by the Austrians, under the Archduke Albert, at Custoza; and Admiral Tegethoff vanquished the naval force of the Italians, under Persano, at Lissa.

Peace was now concluded at Prague between Austria and Prussia, and the allies of Austria, one after the other, at length agreed to its conditions. Austria renounced all connection with the German Confederation, and ceded her claims to Schleswig and Holstein, which were accordingly incorporated with the Prussian monarchy, and formally annexed by right of conquest, October 8, 1866. Austria also ceded the Venetian territory to Italy, and consented to the construction of a new German Confederation, under the leadership of Prussia. This war resulted in the annexation of Hanover, Hesse-

Cassel, Frankfort, Nassau, Lauenburg, part of Hesse-Darmstadt, and a small district of Bavaria to Prussia. The number of square miles acquired by Prussia was one thousand three hundred and seven and a half, and that of inhabitants four million five hundred thousand.

In 1867 strife began between Prussia and France in regard to Luxembourg, which the Emperor Napoleon wished to purchase from Holland and Belgium. Upon the remonstrance of Prussia, the matter was referred to a conference of the great powers, to be held in London. The result was the dismantling of the fortifications of Luxembourg and the declaration of the neutrality of its territory.

It had been the policy of France to promote disunion in Germany; but the war of 1866 resulted not only in promoting unity among the different states, but also in greatly increasing the power and importance of Prussia. France felt envious, and began preparations for war, waiting only for an opportunity to have recourse to arms. Through Spain the pretext came.

The question of the succession of Isabella II. to the throne of Spain caused a bloody civil war and disorders, whose evil results have endured to the present day. Her father, Ferdinand VII., in his will appointed his wife, Maria Christina, regent and guardian of Isabella, and of a second daughter, who afterwards became the wife of the Duke of Montpensier, son of Louis Philippe. Maria Christina assumed the regency in 1833. Conceiving a violent passion for Ferdinand Muñoz, a private soldier in the royal body-guard, whose parents kept a tobacco-shop in Tarazona, she married him secretly, in December, 1833. Soon she began to lose more and more ground with the people, partly on account of her subserviency to the *moderado* party and to France, but chiefly owing to her clandestine relations with Muñoz. In 1840 she issued a decree, in obedience to French influence, which put an end to the old municipal liberties of Spain. The people rushed to arms, and the queen abdicated in favor of Espartero as regent, and repaired to Paris. After the downfall of Espartero, she returned to Madrid. In 1844 she celebrated her marriage with Muñoz in public, on which occasion she created him Duke of Rianzares. After the declaration of the majority of Isabella, she continued to intermeddle in public affairs until, in 1854, she was expelled from Spain by a revolutionary movement, and retired with her husband and the ten children she had borne him to France, where she had purchased the château of Malmaison.

Isabella was crowned in 1843, and in 1846 married her cousin, Don Francisco d'Assisi, Duke of Cadiz, and son of the Infant Francisco de Paula, brother of Ferdinand VII. Before her marriage she was

beloved by her subjects; but her conduct after her alliance with a prince whose hand was forced upon her by the intrigues of Louis Philippe proved injurious to her reputation. Discontent, revolt, and insurrection succeeded one another rapidly, and a revolution broke out in September, 1868.

The queen had gone to St. Sebastian, accompanied by her minister Bravo, in order, it was supposed, to visit the Emperor of the French, who, with the Empress, was then at Biarritz. The revolution was initiated by the fleet. On the 18th of September, Admiral Topete with his vessels appeared before Cadiz, which, after a slight resistance, joined the insurgents, and was followed by Ferrol, Seville, and the whole of Andalusia. Ships had been sent for the exiled generals, who were soon assembled at Cadiz, and General Prim arrived from England. Bravo resigned his office and fled to France, and Isabella appointed Marshal Concha to the post, who, although he held Madrid, formed no cabinet. Marshal Serrano took command of the army, and marched against the Marquis Novaliches, who led the forces on the part of the queen. The armies met at Alcala, and after a battle, in which the marquis was wounded, the royal army fraternized with the insurgents, and the united force advanced towards Madrid, which rose and declared in favor of the movement. Isabella then left Spain and went to Pau, where the Emperor of the French placed the imperial castle at her disposal, after an interview with him and the Empress for fifteen minutes at the railway station at Biarritz. Serrano entered Madrid on the 3d of October, when a provisional government and ministry were formed, and a junta was organized for the city. Serrano became president of the provisional government, and Prim assumed command of the army. The *Official Gazette* published a programme of the contemplated measures; the principal of which was election by universal suffrage of deputies to a constituent assembly, which was to decide on the future form of the government; the queen was solemnly deposed, and every branch of the House of Bourbon expelled from Spain. The other measures proposed were liberty of religion, education to be general and withdrawn from the supervision of ecclesiastics, freedom of the press, freedom of trade, the right of peaceful association, the expulsion of the Jesuits, and the suppression of the conventional establishments founded by Isabella. In November, Isabella left Pau, and took up her residence in Paris, accompanied by her husband and children, abdicating in favor of her son, the Prince of Asturias. Meantime, Spain continued divided in respect to the form of government it was best to adopt, the republican party being the smallest, though the

most active. At length it was announced, in July, 1870, that General Prim had offered the throne of Spain to Prince Leopold of Hohenzollern.

The Brandenburg or Prussian Hohenzollerns, in 1530, embraced the Lutheran religion, which has ever since been the prevailing faith of Prussia; while the senior Suabian or main family retained and still hold their original Roman Catholic creed. It is this senior branch that the father of Prince Leopold Hohenzollern now represents. They bear no resemblance to and have no near relationship with the Prussian family, and, being very wealthy, lead a life of ease and scholarship. Not until 1851 did they surrender their rights of sovereignty to their tenth cousin, Frederic William IV. of Prussia.

Leopold is the oldest son of Prince Charles Anton and Princess Josephine, and therefore is related to the dynasty of Bonaparte, his father being a son of Princess Antoinette Murat, and his mother, Princess Josephine of Baden, a daughter of Stéphanie Beauharnais, who was an adopted daughter of Napoleon I. Hence it is not surprising that the government of Madrid should expect these ties of relationship to recommend their candidate at the Tuileries. Prince Charles Anton had always been an intimate friend and adviser of Louis Napoleon,—had projected for the Emperor his Strasburg fiasco,—and it was he, in fact, and not the son, who was arranging the Spanish throne business. In 1861, Prince Leopold married the sister of the King of Portugal, which gave him character in that part of Europe. The father, Prince Charles Anton, with his family, usually lives at his château in Sigmaringen, built by King William of Prussia for the head of the House of Hohenzollern. It was here that the preliminary negotiations with the Spanish government were discussed. In the contracts of December, 1851, between Prussia and the princes of Hohenzollern of Anton's line, by which the latter ceded their rights of sovereignty to the crown of Prussia, it is expressly stipulated that in case of extinction of male representatives the crown of Prussia shall not claim proprietary rights to the principalities of the senior or Anton line, and that the princes of Hohenzollern shall not inherit the rights of the Prussian branch. The head of the family is, therefore, not the King of Prussia, but Prince Charles Anton, who, by royal order, received the title of "Highness," and later, "Royal Highness," but with distinct specification that it changed in no manner the relation of the House of Hohenzollern to the throne of Prussia. It will thus be clearly seen that the Prussian throne was in no manner interested in or profited by a representative of that house. No better expression of the motives of

the Spanish government in choosing Prince Leopold for their regent can be given than a quotation from a paper of the distinguished statesman Señor Salazar. He said, "In the first place, Prince Leopold belongs to that branch of the Hohenzollern family which has for centuries kept aloof from Protestantism, now predominant at Berlin. He would be the present heir of the Prussian crown had his ancestors, possessing the right of primogeniture, been willing to forswear the Catholic for the Protestant religion." In the second place, Salazar put the question, "Is Portugal dependent on Spain because their thrones are occupied by members of the same family? Of what profit, in 1866, was the relationship of the dethroned King of Hanover to Queen Victoria? Gratitude is an empty word in politics; and, aside from this, upon what ground of interest is Prince Leopold bound to Prussia? His attachments would all be to the Spanish cortes." The Prussian government had no part in this transaction, and King William was greatly surprised when Prince Leopold, who is of full age, came to Ems to communicate to him, as a matter of courtesy, his renunciation of the candidature. The only control the king exercised over him arose from the fact that Prince Leopold was an officer of the Prussian army. The prince's own motive for this action was entirely personal. One reason, which he has authorized to be published in his own language, is, that "without knowing what the people of Spain thought about it, everybody in Germany versed in foreign politics was of the opinion that the Peninsula, on account of its geographical position and peculiar constitution, would have nothing to gain and much to lose by entanglements in European politics, and that therefore their sovereigns would be strong neutrals."

When the proposition was brought to the notice of King William, he opposed it on the ground of the unfitness of German princes to rule Latin subjects, as shown by the experiment of Maximilian in Mexico; besides, he had grave doubts as to the propriety of Prussia's favoring the scheme, for the political reason that Prince Leopold would be too strongly in favor of the French idea and against Prussia.

On the 6th of July, 1870, it was announced that Prince Leopold of Hohenzollern had formally accepted the Spanish crown. This fact was known to the French government the day previous, and "a firm and energetic note" was addressed to Baron Werther, the Prussian ambassador, upon the receipt of which the baron departed for Ems to meet the King of Prussia. What the tenor of this note was might be inferred from the statement made the next day in the Corps Législatif by the Duke de Grammont, Minister of Foreign Affairs, namely, that

it was true that General Prim had offered the throne of Spain to the Prince of Hohenzollern, who had accepted it, but that the people of Spain had not pronounced on the transaction, and France had to know the details of an affair which had been conducted in secrecy. The French government would persist in its policy of neutrality, but under no pretext would it permit a German power to place one of its princes on the throne of Charles V. The duke expressed the hope, however, that prudence in Germany and wisdom in Spain would avert extremities.

Seeing that his acceptance of the Spanish crown was likely to make serious trouble between the two countries, Leopold, by the advice of his father, made a personal renunciation before the matter had been fairly brought to the notice of the Prussian government.

The *Moniteur*, on the evening of the 9th, said, "The abandonment of the Hohenzollern project on the part of Prussia is not enough now. France must prevent the repetition of similar projects, and demand on the part of Prussia an entire fulfillment of the Treaty of Prague,—namely, the liberty of South Germany, the evacuation of the fortress of Mayence, the renunciation of military influence beyond the Main, and the settlement of the Schleswig-Holstein question with Denmark."

Ever since the war of 1866, a war that seemed necessary to clear the political skies of Germany, "a purely family affair," as the Germans called it, having nothing to do with the outside world, and ever since the scheme of German unity commended itself as a scheme of strength and good to the German people, France had been jealous of their prosperity, and wished to humble them. France had within two hundred years invaded Germany numerous times, crowding and jostling her states, and compelling them to put up with insults,—this last one not the least. For, notwithstanding Prince Leopold's withdrawal, the French government insisted upon the official renunciation now and forever of all pretensions to the throne of Spain on the part of any member of the Hohenzollern family. It was said that the king refused to receive Count Benedetti, the French ambassador, bringing the above demand from the French court. The Prussians say that King William was not offended by Benedetti's conduct, but saw fit to treat him with consideration. The king seemed ready to make great concessions rather than bring sacrifices upon the country, and wrote a dispatch to the Emperor, virtually making the disclaimer asked. This dispatch he sent to Bismarck, his minister, for revision, by whom its tone was somewhat altered to suit the emergency; and instructions were sent to the Prussian ambassador at Paris to sustain the dignity of Prussia. The

king left Ems and set out for Berlin, where his ministry were summoned to meet him. By accident they all met at the railway station in Berlin, were joined by the crown prince, and had set out for the Assembly Chamber, when their attention was attracted by the newsboys crying out that war had been declared by the French. The papers were asked for, and the king, believing that war had been declared, put up his hands to his head, and said, "Must I, in my old age, again go to war!" and tears ran down his cheeks. Upon examining the papers, it was found to be quite uncertain whether war had been declared or not. There was no actual declaration, but a telegram saying that a declaration had been made. But the time for action had arrived, and the crown prince, who stood just behind Bismarck, whispered in his ear, "Radical or nothing." Bismarck then said to the king that there was no impediment to mobilizing the whole army, and that no occasion had ever been so favorable. King William at once replied that he would mobilize the whole army. Bismarck, fearing that he would retract, spoke out quickly, and in a loud voice, so that forty persons could hear him, "The king has declared that he will mobilize the whole army;" and the minister of war, Von Roon, who was present, said, "I have heard it, and will at once give necessary orders."

On the 15th of July, the French government, sustained by the Corps Législatif, declared war against Prussia. This declaration asserted that the Emperor of the French was obliged to consider the proposal to elevate a Prussian prince to the throne of Spain as an attack on the security of France; that he desired that Prussia should disavow the scheme, which Prussia refused to do, reserving her right to be governed by circumstances; and that the Emperor was forced to consider this determination as equally menacing to France and the European equilibrium, particularly as it was rendered the more significant by the communication made by Prussia to the cabinets of Europe, giving an account of the refusal to receive the French ambassador. The declaration concluded as follows: "The French government, therefore, is taking steps for the defense of its honor and injured interests, and, having adopted all measures which the circumstances render necessary, considers itself at war with Prussia."

The French Emperor left St. Cloud for the field on the 28th, taking with him the prince imperial, and leaving the Empress Eugenie as Regent of France during his absence. At that date the Prussian army was concentrating between Treves and Merzig, on the river Saar.

King William, in his address to the North German parliament, on calling it together at the beginning of the war, after speaking of the

Spanish succession of a German prince, said, "France has made this circumstance a pretext for declaring war with Germany, even after the original pretense has been removed, and the Emperor in contemptuous disregard of the just right of nations to enjoy the blessings of peace, has followed the examples set him in the history of former rulers of that country. If Germany in former centuries silently bore such outrages upon her rights and honor, she only did so because, disunited as she was, she did not know her strength. Now, when the ties of an intellectual and judicial union, which were first knit by the war of liberation, are drawing the races of Germany more closely together the longer they last,—now, when the defenses of our country leave no loop-hole for a foreign foe,—Germany has both the will and the power to repel the renewed insults of France. It is no vainglorious feeling which induces me to speak thus. The federal governments, and I myself, act in the full conviction that victory and defeat lie in the hand of the God of battles. We have carefully weighed the responsibility which, before the judgment-seat of God and man, must fall upon his head who drives two peaceable nations in the very heart of Europe into a destructive war. The peoples of Germany and France, who both equally enjoy and desire the blessings of Christian civilization and an increasing prosperity, are called to a nobler emulation than the bloody rivalry of arms. Those who bear rule in France, however, by carefully misleading the great nation which is our neighbor, have found out a way to use the justifiable but sensitive patriotism of the country for their own personal interests and passions. The more deeply the federal governments feel that they have done everything their honor and dignity permitted to preserve to Europe the blessings of peace, the more apparent it is to all that the sword has been forced into our hands; the more confidently do we, supported by the unanimous approbation of all the governments of Germany, of the South as well as the North, appeal to the patriotism and willing self-sacrifice of the people of Germany, and summon them to defend her honor and independence. We follow the example of our fathers in fighting for our freedom and our rights, against the violence of foreign invaders; and, as in this war we have no other aim than to secure the lasting peace of Europe, God will be with us, as he was with our fathers."

The pretext of Napoleon for declaring war excited the indignation of all Germany, and roused its enthusiasm to the highest pitch. The South German princes, who, after the war of 1866, had made an alliance, offensive and defensive, with Prussia, were prompt to take the field. With unheard-of rapidity all were on the march, and at the

beginning of August the armies were on the shores of the Rhine, ready to defend the fatherland. King William himself took the entire command.

The first division, under General Steinmetz, consisting of Prussians only, was ordered to occupy the country around Saarlouis and Saarbrücken.

The second army, under Prince Frederic Charles, consisting of Prussians, Hessians, and Saxons, was sent to Zweibrücken.

The third, under the crown prince, consisting of Prussians, Bavarians, Würtembergers, and the troops of Baden, took up position at Landau.

Numerous forces were also sent to protect the coasts of the North and Baltic Seas against the French fleet, under the command of General Vogel von Falkenstein.

On the 2d of August, the French corps Frossard began hostilities in presence of the Emperor, by attacking Saarbrücken, which, after a brave defense by a few hundred Prussians, was taken by the French.

The Germans then began the attack. The crown prince crossed the French frontiers on the 4th of August, stormed Weissenburg and the Gaisberg, defended by the division Douay of McMahon's army, and at Woerth encountered McMahon himself and defeated him in a bloody battle. The same day a part of the first army attacked the corps Frossard, stormed the heights of Spicheran, not far from Saarbrücken, and forced the enemy to retreat in disorder to Forbach.

The crown prince, having sent the Baden troops to Strasburg, marched to Nancy, on his way to Paris. The first and second army proceeded towards Metz, where, at Pange (Courcelles), Steinmetz met the enemy, and after a hot contest drove him into the forts, and then laid siege to the city.

Meantime, Prince Frederic Charles had crossed the Moselle, south of Metz, and rushed on the retreating columns of the enemy. On the 16th of August, with a part of the second army, he met the French commander-in-chief Bazaine, and in the hard-fought battle of Thionville (Mars la Tour) cut off the retreat of the French, although they were superior in numbers, from Verdun. Two days after, the battle began again, when the main French army was defeated by King William at Gravelotte, and driven into Metz, which shut its gates against the pursuing Germans.

The crown prince had gone on through Nancy, and reached Châlons-sur-Marne; but as Marshal McMahon, with whom was the Emperor, had received reinforcements, and turned north to reach Metz by the

Belgian frontiers, in order to relieve Bazaine, the crown prince also turned to the north. At the same time the Maas army, composed of a part of the second army, under Albert, Crown Prince of Saxony, hastened to bar the way to Metz, conquered the enemy at Beaumont, and united with the army under the Crown Prince of Prussia. The whole French army was then surrounded, and on September 2 the battle of Sedan took place, under the command of King William. The French were forced to surrender, and Napoleon with eighty-three thousand unwounded soldiers was taken prisoner. Immense military stores fell into the hands of the victors, and Napoleon was sent, by order of King William, to Wilhelmshöhe, near Cassel. Bazaine made a sortie in the hope of joining McMahon, but was repulsed after a severe contest.

The Emperor's government was now overthrown at Paris, and France declared a republic. The third division and the Maas army then began their march to the French capital, while the first and second divisions, under Prince Frederic Charles, remained before Metz. After the capital of France was reached, the garrison of Paris made a sortie, encountered the fifth Prussian corps, and was defeated. The giant city was then surrounded and besieged. At the beginning of the siege King William's headquarters were at Ferrières, but subsequently he removed to Versailles. The French troops in Paris, under General Trochu, made, at different times, three unsuccessful sorties. At Le Bourget, northeast of Paris, where the French had strongly intrenched themselves, General Budritzki, in command of the Prussian Guards, after a severe contest, dislodged and routed them.

On the 23d of September Toul was surrendered, after a bombardment of six hours. There were surrendered one hundred and nine officers, twenty-two hundred and forty privates, and one hundred and ninety-seven cannon. The surrender of Strasburg followed five days later. It was captured after a siege of six weeks. The prisoners taken numbered seventeen thousand men, including National Guards, and four hundred and fifty-one officers. Among the spoils were one hundred and seventy cannon, fifteen hundred horses, two million francs in the military chest, and government property in the bank estimated at eight millions more. Soissons was taken on the 16th, and Schlestadt on the 24th. Finally, on the 27th of October, Metz was forced by hunger to surrender. Six thousand officers, one hundred and seventy-three thousand men, and an immense amount of military stores fell into the hands of the Germans.

While these events were taking place, the Duke of Aosta, Amadeus,

second son of Victor Emmanuel, was chosen candidate for the Spanish throne, and his acceptance officially announced at Madrid.

The following fortified places were besieged and taken: Fort Mortier, near Neu-Breisach, on the 7th of November; Verdun, on the 8th; Neu-Breisach, on the 10th; Diedenhofen, on the 24th; La Fère, on the 27th; Pfalzburg, on the 12th of December; Montmédy, on the 14th; Mézières, on January 2, 1871; Rocroy, on the 5th; Peronne, on the 10th; and Longwy, on the 25th. Last of all, the strongly-fortified Belfort fell, after a hard siege of three months.

Whilst Paris was besieged by the Prussians, the French were making great exertions to raise new armies, in order to deliver their capital. The fall of Metz left Frederic Charles free, with two hundred thousand men, to oppose the armies which might be raised. He went to Versailles, and then were seen, for the first time, the princes of the confederated states wearing the Prussian helmet and sash. As far back as the reign of the father of Frederic the Great, it had been prescribed that no prince of the royal house should ever be created field-marshal,—probably to remove from the throne the risk of military predominance. But now King William himself set this law aside, and "Fritz" and the "Red Prince" were made field-marshals, and Moltke a count. The king made an appropriate speech upon conferring the title upon the highest crown prince, saying that it was a proper occasion to bestow the highest military honors upon those most conspicuous in the late successes.

The city of Paris was invested by the Crown Princes of Prussia and Saxony,—the headquarters of the former being at Versailles, to the southwest, and those of the latter at Grand Tremblay, on the northeast.

General von der Tann had gone south with his Bavarians and Prussians, and defeated the French at Artenay and Orleans, but was forced to yield by the new army of the Loire, under General Aurelles de Paladines, the enemy being much superior in numbers. Soon, however, reinforcements arrived, under Field-Marshal Frederic Charles and the Gran'l Duke Frederic Francis of Mecklenburg. Frederic Charles defeated the French at Beaune la Rolande, and then, with the Grand Duke, laid siege to Orleans, which fell again into the hands of the Germans, and the Loire army divided into two parts. The division which had been driven west, being reinforced, returned to the attack, but after four days' hard fighting was completely defeated at Beaugency. In consequence of this defeat, the provisional seat of government, of which Gambetta, minister of war, was the leading spirit, was removed from Tours to Bordeaux, and General Chanzy superseded De Paladines in the western French army, while that part

of the Loire army which had been driven to the south was put under the command of General Bourbaki. Vendôme was taken by troops of Frederic Charles, and shortly after a succession of victories drove the army of General Chancy to Le Mans, which was captured on the 12th of January, 1871. Twenty thousand prisoners were taken, and a large booty fell into the hands of the Prussians. The western army of the French was nearly annihilated.

In the north the French had collected troops under General Faidherbe to operate for the relief of Paris. General Manteuffel, with an inferior number of Prussian troops, took Rouen, the capital of Normandy, drove Faidherbe from Amiens, and entered the town. Faidherbe was again repulsed on the L'Hallu, and again defeated by Manteuffel at Baupaume. General Manteuffel was now sent to take command of the newly-organized army in the south, which was to march against Bourbaki. General Goeben, who succeeded Manteuffel at the north, completely overthrew Faidherbe at St. Quentin, and his army fled in disorder to the fortresses of Lille and Douay on the frontiers.

Meantime, General von Werder, with the troops of Baden and Prussians, had conquered nearly all the territory of Franche-Comté, winning a victory at Rioz, and capturing Dijon, repulsing Garibaldi at Pasques, and defeating the eastern French army and Garibaldi's corps at Nuits on the 18th of December. After the loss of Orleans, the remainder of the army of the Loire, under Bourbaki, was sent to the relief of the fortress of Belfort, after which they were to march and attack the besieging army at Paris. Bourbaki marched against General von Werder, who at first retreated, but who, in the three days' fight at Belfort, defeated Bourbaki. Meantime, Manteuffel had hastened from the north with two Prussian corps, and cut off the retreat of Bourbaki with an army of one hundred and fifty thousand men to the south. A battle took place at Pontarlier, and, after a hard contest, eighty thousand of Bourbaki's men retreated through the almost impassable ravines of the Jura Mountains and intensely cold weather to the neutral territory of Switzerland. Thus all attempts to rescue Paris failed.

Meanwhile the siege of Paris continued. The most important sortie of the besieged was made November 30 and December 1, to the south-east, against the posts of the Würtembergers, Saxons, and the second Prussian corps at Brie and Champigny, in the hope of breaking through the army of the besiegers and joining the army under Paladines.

On the 27th of December the Prussians began the bombardment of

the fortifications of Paris, which was followed on the 5th of January, 1871, by bombarding the city. After the last grand sortie on January 19, against the Fifth Army Corps, which failed with severe losses by the French, the proud city was compelled to enter into negotiations, through Jules Favre, Minister of Foreign Affairs, with her conquerors. On January 28, a delegation from the city surrendered the forts to the Germans, the garrison of Paris was declared prisoners, and a truce of three weeks was concluded.

During the truce negotiations for peace commenced between Count Bismark and Messrs. Favre and Thiers, who had been commissioned by the newly-elected French National Assembly. The Germans were in readiness to march directly upon Bordeaux and occupy all France, if the terms of peace which they offered should be refused. The truce was extended several times, and the French negotiators, despairing of any further success of their army, at length accepted the conditions offered them by Germany. On the 26th of February the preliminaries were signed at Versailles, and submitted to the National Assembly to confirm, while two army corps of the Germans occupied Paris, but evacuated it two days after, according to the treaty, as the National Assembly had meantime accepted the conditions of peace.

The principal conditions, which had to be definitively settled at Brussels, were as follows:

1. France agrees to give up Alsace, with the exception of Belfort, and the German part of Lorraine with Metz, to Germany.
2. France agrees to pay an indemnity for the expense of the war of thirteen hundred and thirty-three and one-third millions of dollars; one-fifth, at least, in 1871, and the remainder within three years after the ratification of the treaty.
3. The evacuation of France by the German forces to commence immediately. After the payment of two-fifths of the indemnity the Germans to hold only the departments of Marne, Ardennes, Meuse, Vosges, and Meurthe, and the fortress of Belfort. After the payment of three-fifths, to keep only fifty thousand troops in France, and none at all if sufficient money guarantees are given by the French.
4. The German troops to make no further requisitions, but the French government to supply food to the army of occupation. In the ceded departments the inhabitants to have time to move out if they desire.
5. All prisoners of war to be immediately liberated.
6. The management of the occupied departments to be given to French officials, subject, however, to the German commanders in the interest of the German troops.

The German army of occupation in France consisted of the Seventh and Twelfth Prussian Corps, and the corps of Würtembergers.

The result of the German victories over France was the re-establishment of the German Empire, and of the dignity of German Emperor, which had been vacant since 1806. Negotiations between the North German Confederation and the South German States terminated in the union of Germany, with King William for Emperor. Bismarck sent a dispatch notifying the cabinet of Vienna of the completion of German unity, and Baron von Beust, in his reply, said, "that the restoration of the German Empire is not only received with satisfaction by the people of Austria, but is personally gratifying to the Emperor Francis Joseph. Austria," he added, "sincerely wishes to cultivate the friendship of North Germany. This would be a pledge of enduring union and lasting peace."

Louis II., King of Bavaria, announced the concurrence of all the German princes and the Hanse towns in bestowing upon King William of Prussia the imperial crown, as Frederic William I., Emperor of Germany; and on the 18th of January, 1871, he was solemnly declared Emperor, at Versailles,—exactly one hundred and seventy years after the Elector Frederic III. declared himself King of Prussia.

The new Emperor spoke of the confidence he felt that he and his successors would continue to increase the power of the German Empire, not in war and conquests, but in the blessings of peace, in the national welfare, freedom, and civilization.

Early in March the Emperor returned to Germany, and to his capital, to the great joy of his people. Soon after, Count von Bismarck was elevated to the rank of Prince of the German Empire, and General Count von Moltke was presented with the grand cross of the order of the Iron Cross.

On the 21st of March the legislative session of the Reichstag was opened in Berlin. The Emperor William delivered a speech from the marble throne of Charlemagne, which had been brought from Aix-la-Chapelle. Upon the Emperor's retirement from the hall, a motion was passed congratulating him upon the occurrence of the seventy-third anniversary of his birth. Herr Frankenburg, President of the Chamber of Deputies, on taking his seat, warmly greeted the South German members on their appearance in the united legislative body of the nation.

Napoleon III. was allowed to leave Wilhelmshöhe and go to England, where he took up his abode in Camden House, at Chiselhurst, a small place, situated on the Kentish uplands, about twelve miles from London.

Here he died, January 9, 1873. The Empress Eugenie still lives here; and her son is being educated in England.

France, a republic for the third time, appointed M. Louis Adolphe Thiers, president, for a period undetermined by the law of August 31, 1871. Marshal McMahon succeeded him as president in 1873.

Doña Maria, Queen of Portugal, had a troubled reign. Insurrections and counter-insurrections were of frequent occurrence; the troops were not to be depended upon in times of emergency, and guerrilla bands scoured the country at will, and openly defied the queen's authority. At last, in the crisis of 1852, Doña Maria died suddenly, and her eldest son ascended the throne, in 1853, as Pedro V., under the regency of the king-consort, his father. The latter used his power discreetly; by his judicious management the financial disorders were partially adjusted, and since that period Portugal has been less disturbed by party faction, the royal family have gradually recovered popularity, and the general condition of the nation is more promising. The premature death of the young king and his brother Joao, in 1861, heightened these feelings of loyalty; and the present sovereign, Louis I., second son of Doña Maria, was proclaimed king in the midst of general rejoicing and sympathy with the reigning house. In 1862, Louis married Maria Pia, daughter of King Victor Emmanuel of Italy.

In January, 1871, King Amadeus made his public entry into Madrid; but, although he was disposed to grant every concession in order to restore peace and prosperity to Spain, the republicans were resolved not to submit to his rule. In July, 1872, an attempt was made to assassinate Amadeus and his wife, Maria Victoria, as they were returning from the palace gardens to the palace. Insurrections and disturbances continuing, Amadeus abdicated in February, 1873, and returned with his family to Italy.

Spain was then declared a republic, and in August, 1873, Emilio Castelar was elected president of the Spanish cortes. War broke out immediately between the Republicans and the Carlists, and has not ended at the present time. Spain is the only country now, in Europe, destitute of the blessings of peace.

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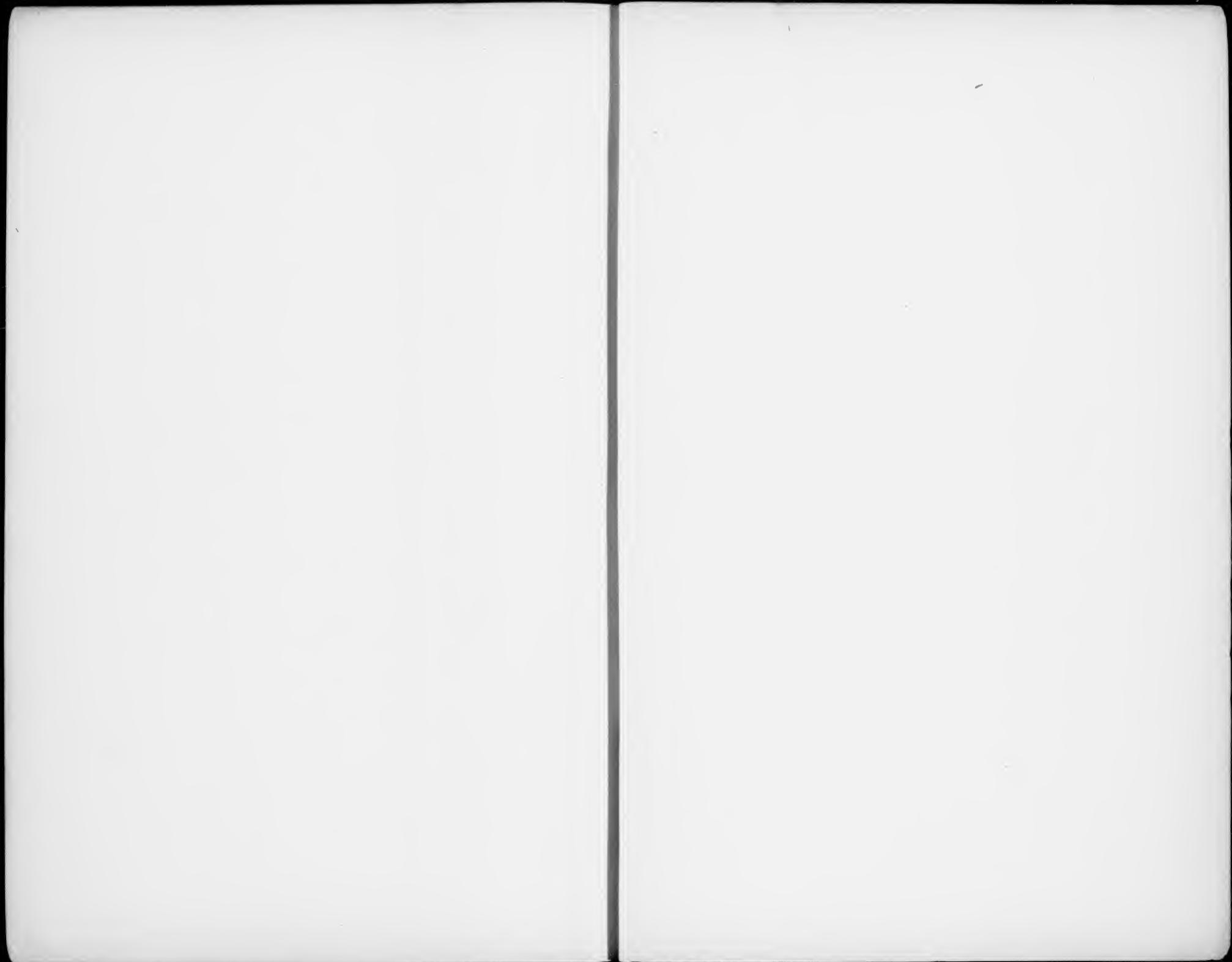
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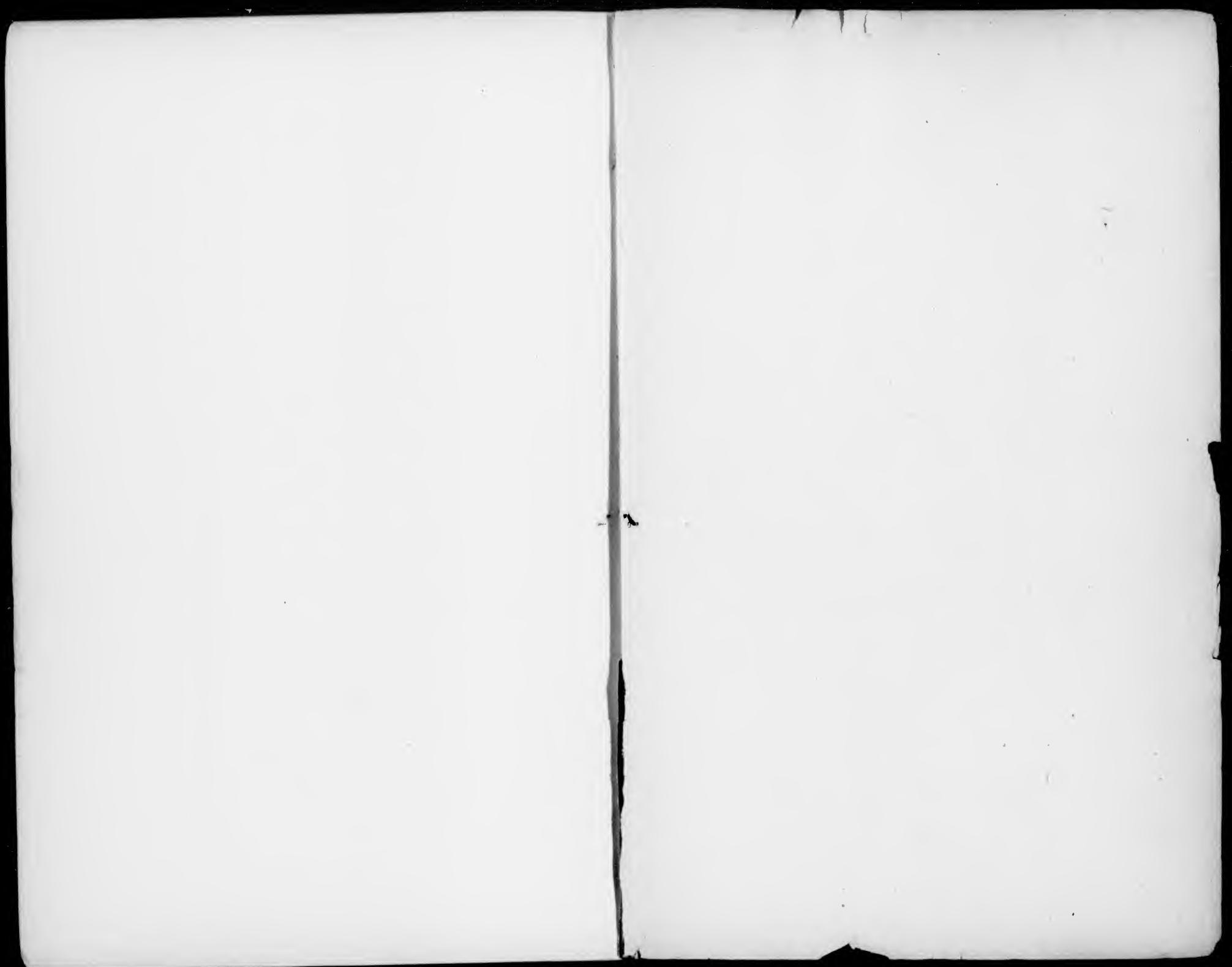
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